JUNE, 1848.

VOLUME I. NO. VI.

THE WESTERN JOURNAL,

OF

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, MECHANIC ARTS, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT, COMMERCE,

AND

GENERAL LITERATURE.

Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts are the basis of Civilization.

M. TARVER AND T. F. RISK,
EDITORS AND PROPRIETORS.

PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

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March 1, 1848.

THE

WESTERN JOURNAL,

M. TARVER AND T. F. RISK,

EDITORS AND PROPRIETORS.

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THE

WESTERN JOURNAL.

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ART. I.—ARTIFICIAL AGENTS OF EXCHANGE.

Having noticed in the preceding numbers of the Western Journal the nature of the agency performed by the merchant and the carrier, we now propose to consider the nature of a different class of agents, which, although artificial, are nevertheless essential to the advancement of civilization.

Among these artificial agents, money may be regarded as the first in point of importance; for, independently of its intrinsic utility as an agent in effecting the exchange of other commodities, it would seem to be endowed with some inherent property that exerts an influence at once potent and mysterious, over the moral nature of man. The power of money is derived from the universal assent of the civilized world, and its most important function is that exercised in facilitating the exchange of other commodities. This is the fundamental principle involved in its use, and should be constantly borne in mind by those who desire to understand its true nature.

The adoption of symbols as the representatives of useful commodities is among the most ancient of the social institutions, and the same idea seems to have occurred to every people in the earliest stages of their civilization; for, even barbarous tribes, ignorant of almost every civil art, and unacquainted with the precious metals, have, nevertheless, conceived the principle involved in the use of money, and for the want of better defined symbols, use shells and other things of no intrinsic value, as the representatives of useful commodities.

Indeed, it is difficult to conceive how the human family could have emerged from a state of barbarism without the adoption of some arbitrary and conventional representative of the value of those things which were necessary to their comfort and convenience; for, without such a representative, the time consumed and the inconvenience incurred in effecting the exchange of commodities, would be greater than the labor of producing them; and would tend to discourage the production of all such as were not essentially necessary to the subsistence and

comfort of the producer. Without such an agent as money, if the producer of corn should need a coat, he must not only find an individual who had a coat to dispose of, but he must find one who desired to exchange it for corn: and if no such individual could be found, the farmer must go without a coat, or otherwise enter into a series of exchanges, for the purpose of procuring an article which the owner of the coat desired to obtain. It was to remedy the inconvenience of effecting the exchange of commodities by bartering, that the principle involved in the use of money was adopted. The proposition was simple, and easy of apprehension, and only required the selection of a proper symbol to put the principle in operation; and the precious metals would seem to have been designed for that purpose—for owing to the peculiar manner in which they are distributed throughout the earth, they can never be produced in quantities so large as to cause a sudden depreciation in their value; while the desire to obtain them ensures the constant working of the mines, so as to prevent a decrease in quantity; and thus the labor employed in mining, is made to regulate the money price of all other labor. This is the principle involved in the use of the precious metals as symbols; and, although they appear to have been wisely selected, it does not follow that the exchange of commodities could not have been effected by other arbitrary symbols, as well as by the precious metals. It is remarkable, that notwithstanding the principle of exchanging commodities by the use of an arbitrary representative of their value has been so long understood and acted upon, yet the laws governing the circulation of money should be so imperfectly understood at the present day. This is owing to the fact that its use and circulation are so intimately connected with the production, exchange, and consumption of useful commodities, that it is impossible to understand it as an independent and distinct subject; nor can it be fully comprehended without embracing the entire subject of political economy. Owing to the facility of exchanging money for whatever the possessor may desire, we very naturally forget that it is an agent, and invest it with all the powers of a principal. Acting upon this error, it becomes the primary object and end of all pursuits, while the substance is sacrificed to obtain the shadow. Such is the case with the farmer, who, aiming to grow rich by the acquisition of money, wears out his land, and permits his houses and enclosures to fall into decay; and such is the case with him who, possessing means sufficient to ensure every reasonable comfort, yet continues to exert every faculty of both body and mind, in the pursuit of wealth. For the former will discover in the end that his labors have simply resulted in exchanging the permanent and substantial wealth which he possessed in his soil, for its equivalent in money; and that his gains consist in the privilege of purchasing, and in like manner wearing out another farm; or, haply, if he perceives his folly, he may appropriate his money, and an equal amount of labor to the purpose of restoring his exhausted farm to its original state of fertility: while the latter, will in time, perceive that he has exhausted his muscular strength, denied

himself the comforts of physical repose, neglected to improve his opportunities of mental and moral improvement, and sacrificed all the pleasures which these were designed to afford for that, which to him, is worse than useless.

Although the amount of money in circulation in a given country may be regarded as the representative of all the labor and property within its limits, yet it is not, nor can be, made a permanent standard of value; for every individual being left free to exchange his labor or property for money, or not, as he may choose, the measure of its value is subject to the agreement of the parties concerned in every transaction of exchange; and hence, it frequently occurs, that at the same time and place, money cannot be exchanged, with different individuals, for the same quantity of a given commodity. One is willing to exchange corn for money at the rate of twenty five cents per bushel, while another demands thirty cents for the same quantity; and thus, in every case of exchange, the parties agree upon the value of money according to the opinion which they respectively form in regard to their own interest or convenience; or, it may be that one or the other is compelled by necessity, to yield to an exorbitant demand; and thus, it will be perceived that "the intrinsic value of money," a phrase which is often used by the politician, is the most vague of all unmeaning terms, especially in the sense in which it is generally used—for, if it possesses an intrinsic value besides its use as a mere metalic substance, this consists in its functions as a general agent of exchange; while its specific value is the subject of agreement between the parties to each transaction.

As an agent in effecting the exchange of other commodities, it is in strict accordance with the nature of money to accumulate and abound most where the greatest amount of commodities are exchanged; and therefore, it as naturally tends to the great commercial marts, as matter to the centre of gravity. As we proceed from these great marts towards the extremes of the commercial circle of which they constitute the centre, the representative value of money gradually increases, or, in other words, it becomes dearer, while lands and provisions become cheaper. This difference in the value, and quantity of money between distant points, however, would not be important was there no commercial intercourse between them; but it is clear that in the exchange of commodities between the centre and the distant points within the circle, the advantages are greatly in favor of the former—for, if the money value of lands and provisions materially differ in different countries, the commerce between them cannot be placed on grounds of equality.

The high price of lands and provisions necessarily enter into and influence the price of every other commodity, and if the people of a country where the price of lands and provisions rules high, as in Great Britain, should exchange their manufactures for the raw material of a country where the price of lands and provisions was low, as in Missouri, the former would enjoy the singular advantage of selling their agricultural products at prices which would pay them a fair profit on

lands valued perhaps at two hundred dollars an acre; while the latter would pay for them in raw material, at a price which only pays a moderate profit on land valued at from five to ten dollars per acre; and thus by purchasing the manufactures of England, we are sustaining the high prices of lands and provisions in that country, and depressing them in our own.

The immense commerce of England draws to that country a larger amount of money than is found in any other; and hence money is cheaper and lands and provisions dearer there than in any other part of the world; and labor is also dearer than in any other country, except the United States. Now, it is evident that these high prices could not be sustained, unless she could sell her manufactures to the people of other countries, at prices corresponding with the prices of her lands and provisions, and purchase their raw material at prices corresponding with the price of lands and provisions where it is produced. This is the course that England has hitherto pursued; and hence she has enriched herself from all the nations of the earth. But no people have ever become rich by British commerce—nor can such an event happen so long as the products of her soil continue at former and present high prices, and she to find a market for her manufactures.

After long experience the people of this country have begun to perceive that we have gained but little by British commerce; but they appear greatly puzzled to find out the cause. Among the many causes assigned, the low price of labor in Great Britain is considered by many as the most prominent. But the average difference between the price of labor there and here, constitutes but a small item in the list of disadvantages against which we have to contend in our commerce with that country. Labor there is dependent upon capital, and wages are reduced to the lowest point that will sustain the operative in a working condition; this is necessary to enable the manufacturer to meet competition from other countries, and also for the purpose of sustaining the high prices of land and provisions; but "pauper labor," as it is sometimes called, is but as the dust in the balance, when compared to the immense amount of machinery, the large profits of real estate, and the fixed capital of the Bank of England. These constitute the elements of the great power against which we have to contend in our commercial intercourse with that country. With such advantages against us, it is our true policy to limit our commerce with her to the exchange of such commodities only as are essentially necessary to our comfort and convenience. For as long as money remains cheaper in Great Britain than in the United States, the advantages growing out of an exchange of commodities, must remain in her favor.

It may be asked, if money is dearer in the United States than in Great Britain, why it does not come here for investment? This would be in conformity with one of the laws of its circulation were not this law modified and controlled by the causes just mentioned. Owing to these causes, the people of Great Britain avail themselves of all the benefits of the high price of money here, while they still keep their own precious metals at home.

If we have made our views intelligible to our readers, they will perceive the importance of lessening, as far as practicable, their reliance upon foreign countries for the sale of their raw material, and also for the purchase of foreign fabrics; for we are fully persuaded that it is only by encouraging the manufacture of our own raw material, and consequently enlarging our internal commerce, that we can avoid the disastrous effects of foreign revulsions. Nor can we by any other means secure to the agriculturists of the United States the just reward of their labor. We have furthermore endeavored to show the tendency of money to accumulate in the great commercial marts, and that this accumulation operates to the disadvantage of those who reside at a distance from the place where their exchanges are effected. From this we discover the importance of encouraging and building up markets as near home as practicable. This is a subject in which the people of the west are vitally interested, for until the farmer of this Valley can find a market for his produce, nearer than the coast of the Atlantic, he must be content to receive a far less reward for his labors than do those in that region.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

ART. II.—THE MORALS OF COMMERCE.

NOTES OF A LECTURE DELIVERED BEFORE THE YOUNG MEN'S MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF CINCINNATI, NOVEMBER 30TH, 1847, BY T. WALKER.

My subject is "*the Morals of Commerce.*" I have given it this name for want of any one more definite, under which I could bring together a variety of random thoughts, all more or less connected with the mercantile profession, but not susceptible of a convenient arrangement under a less comprehensive title. What I shall say will have reference principally, to two things; first, the *preparation* for a mercantile life, and, secondly, the line of *conduct* to be pursued therein.

First, then, as to the preparation. And here the result to which I would conduct your minds is, *that to the merchant knowledge is capital.* If it be a general truth in human affairs, that knowledge is power, I hold it to be pre-eminently so in regard to mercantile pursuits. Without it, all the capital of a Girard or an Astor, would not make a merchant; and with it, as the principal thing, capital soon follows as an incident. Accordingly, the first duty of every person destined for a merchant, is to prepare himself, by a suitable education, for an intelligent discharge of his diversified functions—just as much so, as of a lawyer, a physician, or a clergyman; and to this end, there is just as much need of commercial schools and colleges, as of any other—and these, I rejoice to say, we are beginning to have in all our commercial cities. We have, too, commercial dictionaries and magazines—a distinct commercial department for newspapers—chambers of commerce—boards of trade—reading rooms—and, best of all, library associations.

All these things bear gratifying testimony to the increased interest taken in mercantile education. And why should it not be so? Why should not the mercantile profession stand side by side with the other so called liberal professions? There is, in truth, no good reason, whether we look to its dignity, difficulty, or utility. For what is commerce? and who is the merchant?

In the sense in which I am considering it, commerce comprehends whatsoever relates to the exchange of commodities between individuals and nations. Regarded then as a mere department of business, what a stupendous concern it is! Even if the products of the earth were every where the same—instead of being so wondrously, yet admirably diversified—even then that ever active principle, the division of labor, which restricts every worker, as far as possible, to a single operation, in order that practice may make him perfect, would still require the co-operation of a countless number of individuals in supplying the wants of each; and this alone would create an immense commerce. There is probably not a person in this presence, whose mere covering is not the product of more than ten thousand hands. But the commerce, growing out of these exchanges is almost nothing, when compared with that which results from that endless variety of soil, climate, taste, and character, by which it has pleased the all-wise Creator to distinguish the different portions of the globe. I presume there is not one of you who passes a single day, to the comforts of which each quarter of the earth, if not every parallel of latitude, has not contributed something peculiar to itself. And it is only when we contemplate commerce on this world-wide scale; when we think of all the productions of every clime, every machine, and every working animal up to man, as constantly passing over the land, and over the sea, in one mighty circle of exchange and distribution—it is only then that we can rise to any thing like an adequate idea of what commerce really is. It is only then that we recognize in commerce the grand instrument of human civilization, as well as the medium of supplying mere physical wants; and cease to wonder at the deep reverence paid to the merchant princes of those early days, when commerce first opened the highway of the world, and caused the light of knowledge to shine upon the darkness of the middle ages.

But from the general idea of commerce, let us descend to a brief analysis of its principal functions, for the purpose of deducing therefrom the particular branches of knowledge essential to every merchant, who aspires to be anything more than a mere trader. Of course I say nothing of the elementary branches of school education, for these belong to every body. But presupposing these, I observe that, commerce, being pre-eminently a national concern, the regulation of it has been committed exclusively to the National Government. Hence, every merchant should acquaint himself with our *commercial treaties* and *navigation laws*, together with the general subjects of finance, currency, tariffs and revenues, upon which those treaties and laws are predicated. In short with the science of *political economy*. Nor should he be ignorant of so much of the *law of nations* as determines

the commercial rights of belligerent and neutral nations in case of war. If to this view it be objected that I require every merchant to be a statesman, I reply, that I know of no better preparation for the practical duties of statesmanship, than mercantile pursuits conducted on a large and liberal scale; and the history of our government, had I time to adduce it, would prove that whatever is of wisdom in the commercial legislation of Congress, or the commercial measures of the Executive, is wholly attributable to those enlightened and accomplished merchants, who, when not themselves members of Congress or of the cabinet, have been resorted to by those who were, for their advice and aid. The truth is, that in every commercial nation—at London no less than at Washington—from the very necessity of the case, merchants must, either directly or indirectly control the government in respect to commercial regulations, because no other persons have the requisite knowledge. And if such be the influence of this class upon the government, the reciprocal influence of the government upon mercantile interests is not less important. In either aspect therefore, the merchant should, to the extent above stated, have the education of a statesman.

Descending now from these general subjects to those of more immediate and daily concern, and taking up commercial operations in the natural order of events, we are led directly to the following subjects of study—

First—That comprehensive knowledge of Geography, which comprises not only the productions peculiar to each region, and the channels of transportation, but also the wants of each region—in short, every thing connected with supply and demand.

Secondly—An essential requisite for buying and selling well, is to understand what constitutes a bargain in the eye of the law—all that relates to the contract of sale, whether private or at auction.

Thirdly—The great business of transporting merchandize from place to place by common carriers, makes it necessary for the merchant to understand their rights and responsibilities.

Fourthly—Merchandize, in the course of transportation, and when lying in the warehouse, is exposed to various perils, which have given rise to a complicated system of insurance, with which the merchant should make himself familiar.

Fifthly—For the purpose of increasing their capital or other means, merchants often find it convenient to associate themselves in partnerships or corporations; with the nature of which relations, therefore, they should be well acquainted.

Sixthly—In almost all mercantile operations, there is a necessity of employing agents of various descriptions; and this makes it necessary for a merchant to understand the rights and duties of this important relation of principal and agent.

Seventhly—Credit has become so important an element in commercial operations, in the shape of bills of exchange, promissory notes, and guarantees, that a knowledge of these contracts has become indispensable to the merchant.

Eighthly—The relations of debtor and creditor, so far as relates to the facilities furnished by law for the collection of debts in different places, and the operation of bankrupt or insolvent laws, should be well understood by the merchant.

I may be told that I am requiring every merchant to be educated for a lawyer. I answer, that while there is a vast field of law which I would not advise the merchant to meddle with, I would have him study the general principles of mercantile law, for the same reason that I would have a mechanic familiar with the tools of his trade. Indeed so essential do I deem this kind of knowledge to every merchant, that, were I educating my son for that profession, I would set apart at least two years of his noviciate expressly for this study—nay more, so much do the two professions run into each other, especially in commercial cities, that if I were educating my son for the law, I should desire to have him spend at least the same period in a good counting-room. I speak now from my own professional experience. After having occupied more than the usual time in preparing to practice law, when I entered upon the practice, the most serious want I encountered, was the want of a more accurate knowledge of those customs of merchants, which constitute so large a part of mercantile law. But while I make this confession let me say, on the other hand, that a somewhat extensive professional intercourse with the mercantile class, has often caused me to feel astonished at their profound ignorance of their legal rights and duties, although to that very ignorance I was indebted for the need of my professional services. Permit me then to conclude what I have to say upon this part of my subject, by earnestly recommending to this association to provide for an annual course of lectures upon commercial law. I feel confident that, in the shape of lectures, you cannot spend your time or money better. Be assured that you will find such knowledge to be capital.

But it is time that I turn from the subject of *preparation*, to that of *conduct*. And I begin this branch of my subject with the remark, that, as there is no department of business in which, from its very nature, men are obliged to repose so much confidence in each other, so, there is none in which the highest integrity is so much required. If it be a common maxim that honesty is the best policy—it becomes a fundamental truth in commercial transactions. Here, as in geometry, the *straight line* is always the shortest distance between two points. The *customs of merchants* have created, and now constitute the great body of commercial law, of which it has long been the boast, that it approaches nearer to the strictly ethical standard, than any other branch of law. Of the law in general—alas! that I should be obliged to say so—too often you cannot answer the question, what is the law?—by resolving a still higher question, what is right between the parties? Nor can this always be done in controversies between merchants. For, in either case, we must resort to the precedents for a rule, and not to the untrammelled conscience of a good man. But then in commercial law, the precedents themselves have been based upon a higher morality, than in any other branch,

because the customs of merchants created them, and they have been most recently established. Yet the commercial code is very far from furnishing a rule for every case; and no class of men have more frequent occasion to consult the higher code of ethics, than conscientious merchants.

To take a single example by way of illustration: There is not perhaps a more difficult question in ethics, than this, which the merchant is required to solve almost every day—namely, how far, in making a bargain, he may rightfully avail himself of knowledge which he knows the other does not possess, without informing him of it. In other words, where is the dividing line between fair dealing and cheating? And this question has acquired a new importance, now that the lightning has been harnessed to the newsman's car. Now if we go to the law for a solution, we find it laid down that fraud will be fatal to any bargain; but, at the same time, that parties are not required to contract with equal advantages, nor for equivalent considerations. If a man has understanding enough to comprehend common things of every day life, the law pronounces him to have a contracting and disposing mind; and then if the other party makes no misrepresentation, the bargain is valid, though he may have much the best of it. He has a right to conceal his superior knowledge. Yet this general rule is subject to many exceptions, one of which occurs in the matter of insurance, where concealment by the insured is often as fatal as misrepresentation. Now in this want of any certain and specific rule of law applicable to all cases—and, may I not add, in the lax morality of the rule so far as it is laid down?—the conscientious merchant, more perhaps than any other man of business, is called upon to consult the higher law written by conscience upon the heart. And when, in addition to this, we consider how inevitable it is that merchants, who never saw each other, perhaps never heard of each other, and residing at the antipodes, should nevertheless repose the same confidence in each other as if they lived on the same street. And when we further consider that the first requisite for that credit, which is so much used in commerce, is integrity—may we not say that a dishonest merchant is the basest of all dishonest men, because he adds folly to knavery? But without dwelling longer upon the high morality so indispensable for the merchant, let me advert to some of the evils which prevail in our commercial system.

Of these evils, the greatest, and that towards which all the lesser ones contribute, is instability, fluctuation, uncertainty. It has been said by close observers that, in this country, nine merchants out of every ten fail, in the course of their lives. I know not whether this be strictly true. It is enough for my purpose to know, that failures are far more frequent among merchants than among any other class of business men; and that every few years there occurs a general crisis, or revulsion, sometimes confined to one country only, and sometimes embracing the whole commercial world, in which bankruptcies become the order of the day. Those who seemed rolling in wealth are suddenly reduced to beggary—the breaking of one house drags down another, though perhaps oceans intervene. He who

could borrow his millions yesterday, cannot get credit for a coat to-day. Banks break because their debtors are broken—even the day laborer has not wherewithal to pay for his food, because that which he took as money has become worthless on his hands—in a word, the vast fabric of commerce is overthrown, and all is chaos and confusion. Anon, a new race of merchants appear. The darkness which brooded over the face of the deep is gradually dispersed—business finds or makes for itself new channels as before—capital increases—credit expands—there seems no end to the swelling prosperity. Every body can increase his expenses, because his books show that his profits are increased. The last revulsion is forgotten in these halcyon times—the warnings of experience are unheard in the general rush of business—fortunes are made in a day—nothing is required but courage and luck. Surely these are glorious times! Yes—but wait till to-morrow. The bubble has burst. There is another crisis—another revulsion—another deluge of bankruptcy—and so on, almost periodically.

Let us explore some of the causes of this great evil of instability:

One of the most prominent causes, especially in this on-rushing country of ours, is, a prevailing eagerness for rapid gains. Our young merchants have not patience to begin at the bottom of the ladder and ascend regularly to the top. They must go up by a few rapid leaps. Instead of beginning in a small way, and enlarging their business gradually—themselves growing up with it—they dash at once into a large business, before they are fitted for it. I speak not now with respect to capital; for, if they had ever so much, this is not the way to begin, but the way to close a commercial career. The great want is capacity to manage a large business at the outset, which never can be acquired by a mere apprenticeship. It must be the work of actual experience at the head of business, and not in any subordinate position. Take two young men of equal means in every respect, mental and otherwise. Let one begin moderately and extend his operations gradually, say for twenty years. Let the other begin with a business as large as that to which that of the first has grown in this space of time. And at the end, which is likely to be in the best position? I think all experience will answer, the former. In fact the probabilities are a hundred to one, that the latter will be a broken merchant before half the period has elapsed—while the former, feeling his way at every step—never venturing beyond his depth—growing in capacity with the growth of business—and thus, always equal to what he undertakes, will, in all probability, by that time, have become an established merchant, in the best sense of that phrase. It was a favorite maxim of one of the wisest of the ancients to *hasten slowly*; and in nothing is the wisdom of this maxim more evinced, than in mercantile pursuits. I have not resided in this city quite twenty years, but I invite those who have resided here so long, to run their minds back over the commercial history of this city for that period, in confirmation of what I have just said. My memory does not furnish a solitary exception to the rule I have laid down. Those who have plunged recklessly at the start

into a heavy and dashing business, have all failed. Shooting up like mushrooms, like them they have disappeared. While those who have pursued the other course, are now at the head of the commerce of the city; if, indeed, they have not already retired from business upon ample fortunes.

Another cause is, the too great prevalence of the *speculating* spirit. All legitimate commerce is a matter of *calculation*, not of *speculation*. In using this term, *speculating*, as descriptive of a spirit which I would condemn, I have taken the mildest word I could think of. The proper word, if it did not sound so harshly, would be *gambling*—for the thing is gambling, both in spirit, motive, and result. It proceeds upon chance, and not calculation. The chance of a rapid rise, inducing to buy largely, or the chance of a rapid decline, inducing to sell largely. It seeks, by buying for less or selling for more than a thing is worth, to realize more than the ordinary profits—and that, too, upon hazards as uncertain and incalculable, as the turn of a card. This, I repeat, is gambling; and the results upon the trading world are most deplorable. I speak not now of the inevitable tendency of such practice to corrupt that fine moral sense, which should be the jewel of every merchant—for this is too palpable to need enforcement. But I speak of its inevitable tendency to produce those sudden and frequent revulsions in business, which, like earthquakes, shake the commercial world to its very centre. What cause but this could have produced the late frightful financial crisis in England? Speculating in breadstuffs—betting upon the potato-rot—gambling upon the greater or less ravages of famine, and buying at any price—grasping at all that could be got—stretching credit to its last tension for that purpose, and then holding on in hopes of still higher prices from still greater scarcity, until the benevolence of foreigners co-operating with the bounty of Providence in the promise of a better harvest, at once struck down prices, and with them speculators, in one tremendous crash! And this is but a picture of what we see going on among us—on a smaller scale to be sure—almost every year. Take our own provision business, for the last fifteen years, as an example, and what has it been but gambling? If some splendid fortunes have been made, by stopping at the right time, how many more have been lost? Nor does the mischief stop with the speculators themselves. It thwarts all the fair calculations of the prudent merchant—or rather it makes calculation impossible. The prudent man must either lie still—which of itself may be ruinous—or join in the game which is playing around him, and thus trust all to chance, which may be equally ruinous. But I may be told that all this is inevitable—that commerce is, in its very nature, a hazard—that every merchant, however prudent, stands upon a mine which may, at any time, explode. I admit that some hazard must attend the most cautious commercial enterprises, but not to the extent here claimed. A particular adventure predicated upon the best calculations which foresight can make, may prove unfortunate, and loss ensue. But to a prudent merchant, loss is never ruin; while to the rash adventurer, it almost always is. The one never puts all

at risk on any enterprise however promising. The other does, however desperate. The one simply loses—the other breaks.

Still another and very fruitful cause of disaster is found in the use made of credit. I think it is used too much, and in objectionable forms. A word or two on each of these heads.

First, I think credit is used too much. That credit must always form an important element in commerce, I cannot question. That it often constitutes the best part of a young merchant's capital, I am aware; and it is most honorable to him that it should be so. Perhaps no higher evidence is practically given of confidence among men, than that which trusts another upon his character alone. But just in proportion as such credit is a precious thing, should it be cautiously used and carefully guarded—let it be confined to cases known to be meritorious, and it is a substantial good. But let it be given indiscriminately, as part of a general system, and it becomes an immense evil. It not only takes away the strongest incentive to deserve credit, by confounding the worthy with the unworthy, but it keeps the whole commercial edifice in a tottering condition, liable at any moment to fall, and involve alike the rotten and the sound, in one common catastrophe. And is it not true, at least in this country, that the general system of dealing is on credit, so that dealing for cash forms only a rare exception? Are not goods usually imported on credit, wholesaled on credit, retailed and sub-retailed even to the dime's worth booked by the country trader? And does not this indiscriminate and reckless use of credit make us lose sight of the fact, that the only true foundations of credit are integrity and prudence? I hardly call that credit, which is predicated upon known means, or secured by a sufficient mortgage; but that only which is based upon a careful scrutiny into character. Such credit is the glory of commercial life, as it should be the gaol of a merchant's ambition; and none other should be asked or given.

In the second place, mercantile credit has assumed a form which is often fraught with evil consequences. I refer to the use of what is called *accommodation paper*. One man endorses for another, and he for a third, and so on, until the whole trading community becomes thus tied together, in such a manner, that any disaster to one rarely fails to bring others down with him. But this is not the only evil. Many a man thus obtains credit, who does not deserve it for his own sake. It is enough that he can get a good endorser; and what is the consequence if the principal debtor fail? This is a *confidential* debt, which must be preferred, if the law will permit. Commercial honor, so called, requires this preference; and thus the unlucky creditor who has trusted without such endorsement, must get nothing, because the confidential debts swallow up all. And how is it with the endorser? The law says he is as much bound as if the debt were his own. But he does not feel so. He will escape if he can, more especially if he have debts of his own to pay. These he will pay first, and then, perchance, there will be nothing left. I hope I over state this evil; but my professional experience tells me, that

the moral effect of this system of accommodation endorsements is every way bad—on the principal, the endorser, the creditor, and the community—too often resulting in severed friendships, broken faith, fraudulent preferences, and widespread disasters. I may be told, however, that the banks, which are the great reservoirs of credit, will only lend upon this kind of security. Then I say the banks act unwisely. It cannot be their permanent interest to do business upon a vicious system. Had I time, it would be easy to demonstrate, that the practice of discounting accommodation paper is always dangerous to the bank itself. Indeed, there is little doubt, that the last financial crisis in this country, involving as it did nearly all the banks, and many of them in total ruin, is to be ascribed more to the enormous amount of accommodation loans, than to all other causes put together. Had they confined their discounts to business paper only—by which I mean that which is predicated upon real transactions—the amount would have been limited to the business actually done, and the crash, when it came, would not have been half as great. But even if the banks could have an interest distinct from that of the community, and could safely and profitably grant accommodation loans, this is no reason why merchants should make use of them, if their tendency be bad. Let them make common cause, and the banks must come to their terms. Let it once become a general rule that credit, when not founded upon a pledge of property, shall be based upon confidence in the individual, and him alone, and the credit system, thus modified will be safer and better for all concerned. In fact, if we analyze the matter, nothing is really gained to the lender, on the score of security, by accommodation endorsements; for these are made only upon the principle of reciprocity. I endorse for you, and you endorse to the same extent for me; and thus each is weakened as much as he is strengthened, and the general security not a whit increased. It may be that I am wrong in laying so much stress upon the mischief of accommodation credit; but I do seriously believe it to be one of the greatest evils in our commercial practice; and therefore I commend the subject to your serious and candid examination.

Still another evil, and I have sometimes thought a growing one, is the want of a sufficiently high regard for the sacredness of promises. We sometimes hear it said of a man, as the highest compliment which can be paid to his integrity, that his word is as good as his bond—meaning thereby, that he will keep a promise simply because it is a promise. And this is precisely my idea of an honorable merchant. I cannot conceive of such a man breaking a promise which he has the power to keep, whatever it may cost him; and in so acting, his sense of honor is but another name for the sense of moral obligation. Such a man does not ask whether the law will compel him, for he is a law unto himself. Nay, he would be the more scrupulous from the fact that there was no legal compulsion. Yet how many are there, in the mercantile community—as honorable, I trust, as any in the land—who practice upon this high standard? Let me apply the test by asking some other questions. How many of our merchants are in the habit of

making pecuniary promises, which they do not expect strictly to keep? How many think it a sufficient reason for not complying with such promises, that it is simply inconvenient at that time? How many of them will suffer their notes to be sued upon, and instruct their attorneys to procure all the delay they can, merely because the use of the money is worth more to them than the interest and costs? How many will refuse altogether to pay a debt, however clear the moral obligagation, when assured that a legal defence can be made? and more especially when the promise is to pay the debt of another? How many would hesitate to avail themselves of the statute of limitations, even when the indulgence granted by delay to sue, had been the result of simple kindness—and, finally, how many are there, who being discharged from their debts by a bankrupt law, would voluntarily come forward and pay them, when they should subsequently become able? Why this latter phenomenon is so rare, that when an instance occurs of a discharged bankrupt paying his debts, it is bruited as a miracle of honor through all the newspapers in the land; and ten to one his creditors present him a service of plate for an act of simple honesty! For I take it to be clear that there can be no honest excuse for not paying a debt, and punctually too, except that of absolute inability; and that excuse ceases, the moment ability returns.

As I am speaking before an association of young merchants, may I so far claim the privilege of a mentor, as to conclude this discourse with a few words of advice?

Set out then with the belief that knowledge is capital, and by all the means in your power strive to inform yourselves of whatever concerns the functions of a merchant. In the discharge of the duties of your noble profession, never forget that the most unswerving integrity is demanded of you, not only by the common obligations of morality, but the truest considerations of self-interest. Be not eager for rapid gains, but hasten slowly and therefore surely—keep down the spirit of speculation, though all around you run mad with it, remembering that the chances are a hundred to one of its leading you to ruin. Look upon an unquestioned credit as the most precious of acquisitions—remember that its only true foundations are integrity and prudence—use but do not abuse it. When once acquired, make any pecuniary sacrifice to keep it unsullied. Avoid the entanglements of accommodation endorsements as far as you can; but if you once make such, consider the debt as equally binding with your own. Finally, consider every promise you make as sacred as if it were a vow upon the altar; and however the law may regard it, make it good at any sacrifice, for the sake of a merchant's honor. Keep these counsels, and you will avoid those numerous shoals and quicksands whereby so many merchants suffer shipwreck—and if it be not your lot "to lay up gold as dust, and the gold of Ophir as the stones of the brook," you will certainly acquire a treasure by the side of which gold is but dross—the character of an upright and honorable merchant.

ART. III.—MODERN LITERATURE.

BY J. ORMROD, OF MISSOURI.

Gentlemen :—I was agreeably surprised, a few weeks ago, by the presentation of the three first numbers of your periodical—the WESTERN JOURNAL—having previously seen no announcement of its existence.

I have been much pleased with the contents, which evince on your part care and diligence, and manifest a comprehensive intelligence in regard to the best means for promoting, permanently, the interests of the west—and especially those of our own State, the natural resources of which, when fully developed, cannot fail to advance it to a high rank and importance in the confederacy. Amidst the lamentable dearth which prevails in our home literature of any really nourishing food for the mind, how much more grateful is it to a lover of his species, and one who has a healthful appetite, to be thus greeted with something solid and wholesome, than to have tendered to him some newly concocted political or literary weekly sheet, of high sounding title but vapid contents; nor can I except from the category our fashionable monthlies, *et id genus omne*, with their meagre bills of fare and thin potations

We live, indeed, in a literary era—a period of advancement when literature and useful knowledge are immeasurably more widely diffused among the masses, than was the case in any former age of the world; but while literature is thus diffused, and still diffusing, is it not also being diluted? And while increasing in quantity, is it not in an equal ratio degenerating in quality? This is an enquiry befitting us to make, that we be not too heedlessly carried away with the current.

The public taste, it is to be feared, is becoming frivolous, if not morbid; it has become diverted from the more wholesome and instructive works that are extant, to seek for entertainment in the light unedifying—to say no worse of it—periodical literature of the times, with which we are so profusely supplied, and in which the great body of readers now find their chief gratification. The literary caterers for the public are responsible for this, as well as the resulting consequences. The writers of the day, and among them those of whom we might hope better things, instead of seeking to elevate the public sentiment, improve the tastes, and instruct the minds and morals of their readers, too generally descend from their station, desecrate their calling, and lower themselves to the standard of the multitude. Imbued often with the sacred spirit of genius, but with unhallowed imaginations, they mistake their mission—they flatter, they pander to base passions, and administer to appetites already too much depraved, until the public taste, growing by what it feeds on, becomes more and more vitiated.

Our imaginative literature, now so abundant and so much sought after, although it may in some respects be superior to that of the last age, and is certainly more attractive, has yet, in the present day, taken a downward tendency in its flight.

Book making, both in this country and in Europe, has become too much of a craft, and authorship a trade—quantity is a greater consideration, both with the writer and the public, than is at all desirable, for it takes precedence of quality.

The inquiry is regarding the sale of any proposed publication, rather than its usefulness or desirableness in other respects. We no longer, as in times that are by-gone, see authors giving themselves up with absorbing devotion to their subject, with their entire thoughts wrapt in deep earnestness, and seeking with ardent impulse and benevolent purpose to enlighten and elevate their species. They have partaken of the leaven of the times, and genius has become contaminated with a wordly spirit.

With ignoble and sordid aims, they now supplicate Mammon, and make propitiatory offerings to the fitful and ever changing humors which dispense popular awards. They must make fortunes, gaily sport among the fashionable crowd, and become lions, forsooth! Is it for them to do these things, I would ask—to leave their empyrean and mix with the baser and earth-born spirits of the every day world, contending for the privileges of life?

What have they to do with fashionable vanities such as these, or why should they concern themselves with such sublunary fooleries? Theirs is the nobler task of purifying the worldly mind, and correcting, so far as may be, the grosser tendencies of the age. If they are seeking a reward for their labors, let them look for it in the inmost recesses of their own thoughts, and if those labors are such as to be worthy their genius, there, most assuredly, they will find it.

Modern authors, with some few exceptions, are thus prone to write to please the many, rather than the discriminating few. They are induced, many of them, by the venality I am deploring, to cater for the gratification of every depraved taste, and hence the "*Jack Shepherds*," and, if the demand should come, the "*Dusty Bobs*," and "*Black Salls*" in abundance, to be undertaken by some of the most accomplished literary men of the day.

It is for the reading public to look to this matter, and to correct the downward tendencies and literary degeneracy of the age, or literature which has elevated, may again depress us. But glory be to our old writers! such a catastrophe, should it overtake us, could only be of temporary duration, for were everything else to fail us, we should find in their pages—in our standard literature—a redeeming and restorative power.

The *demand* for inferior and demoralizing literature produces the *supply*, but would our writers of talent and genius better employ their gifts by directing their aims to higher objects—those of elevating the tastes and stimulating the faculties of their readers to healthful exercise, and, with a due share of moral courage, always give us something truly worthy their labors—whether employed upon fiction or that which is more directly instructive—the *supply* thus furnished would not fail to create the *demand*. The demand might come more slowly, perhaps, but the ratio of its increase would certainly be greater and more lasting.

In what other way than this, I may be permitted to ask, can we expect any benefits to accrue from literature—from what may be termed elegant literature at least—to the people at large, in forming their minds and morals, and moulding their tastes? For, however favorably organized by nature, the rising generation, at least, are ever subject to the influences around them, be those influences for good or for evil; their literary tastes and associations are mostly decided by what is presented to them in books and periodicals, and they are capable of much better things, and better guidance than they usually get for their minds from the common-place fugitive productions of the age.

It is the province of the more highly gifted natures to direct the destinies of mankind; and those writers who have the power, and seek not to raise the aspirations of the many—to attract them from pursuits which are low and grovelling to such only as are worthy their rational natures, are unmindful of their sacred trust, and injure their own fame; for, unless literary labors are so conducted as to produce this effect in a lasting and unequivocal manner, they must always and necessarily be somewhat barren performances, whatever, in other respects, may be their pretensions.

Great men—great geniuses—constitute the world's treasure: they are the lights of mankind, and to them we must look up as to guiding stars, to direct us on our way to that higher destiny which it is said awaits us in our farther advances and attainment to ultimate civilization: if not to them, which way shall we turn our eyes or whither direct or steps?

With loftier aims than the mere winning of popular favor, or than any which the love of pecuniary gain or fashionable notoriety can supply—such aims as the pure feelings of philanthropy can alone inspire—our most talented writers, the Bulwers of the day, would have devoted their geniuses, and dedicated their labors to the services of mankind, in seeking to enlighten and elevate their species by producing works of no doubtful tendency. They would have given us pure gold unalloyed with the baser metals, and refined by the subtle process of their genius; and not as now, have placed before us images in which brass, iron and clay are mixed up with the precious metals which we find there interlaid, with the skill of a workman indeed, but which we cannot extract, or look upon without pain and contamination.

And let the truth be impressed upon the minds of all who, by intellectual labors are seeking for fame or distinction, that moral deficiencies or moral deformities in regard to what they accomplish, will ever be found to interpose an insuperable bar to the attainment of any great eminence or enviable notoriety in pursuits of every kind. And the writer, statesman, or other distinguished actor on the world's great theatre, who has those deficiences to contend with, however mighty and transcendent his powers of intellect, will fail in his object, with whatever ardent aspirations he may pant for renown.

He will never reach that high pinnacle of just fame, on which the great bene-

factors of mankind take their permanent station—the Shakspeares, the Miltons, the Washingtons, the Franklins, and LaFayettes of past times. No adamantine column will rise up a pedestal for his feet to stand on. Buoyed up and sustained for the time by the fickle breath of popular applause only, he must be content to take his station in mid air; and when the changing breeze with the changing mood that gave it being, takes another direction, he falls without other support, prostrate down to earth, never to rise again.

This is not a picture merely sketched to please the fancy, but a true type in figurative language—fanciful though it may be—of the many signal instances we have had before us, which might serve to illustrate the truth I contend for. I might here recount many examples, were such proof needed, for establishing my position, not of literary men only, but men of pre-eminent talents, moving and seeking distinction in other spheres of life—legislators, statesmen, and politicians of almost every class; and some of these in our own country and before our eyes in the present day.

Men they were in high stations, who had raised themselves by their great talents to an enviable distinction; and while they were thought pure, were honored with the name of patriots; but they have fallen—their hour of trial came, and they were found wanting in one of the prime elements of greatness—honesty of purpose.

These may be said to be deficient in knowledge of mankind, in *tact*, or what not, but we can best account for their failure, by referring it to a deficiency in honesty, in purity of motive, and singleness of heart—without which requisites, and with the gifts of angels, they can never become enthroned in the hearts of their countrymen. "Without moral worth," as well observed by a writer of the day, "acuteness of intellect, is but a snare to its possessor."

Entertaining the above sentiments, I therefore cannot fail to be gratified at the auspicious appearance of the WESTERN JOURNAL, and I greet your undertaking accordingly with a hearty God speed, trusting that you will neither fail nor falter in the good work you have set yourselves to do, but steadily and perseveringly prosecute your objects, and your labors cannot fail to be appreciated, and to result in good. I trust that you will continue as you have begun, to be the strenuous and enlightened advocates of the true interests of the west, not only those interests which are *material*—agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, &c.—but that you will also not lose sight of those higher interests which relate to mind and morals, but do what in you lies to promote them by an endeavor to stimulate your readers to the cultivation of their faculties, without which our prosperity and physical advancement, however considerable, can avail us but little.

Our present civilization, it must be remembered, is but half progress, and boast as we will, even of our intellectual development, if it be merely civilization of the head we have achieved, but which penetrates not the heart, it will be a bootless acquisition.

If you can sympathize with me in the sentiments and opinions I advance, you will then readily assent to the proposition that there are other and still more important interests which it behooves you to urge upon your readers, besides those which relate exclusively to our material being; interests in which the happiness of the people of the west, as well as that of all others, is deeply involved.

I am glad to find, therefore, that although the greatest number of your pages are filled with matter of purely secular interest, you have apparently left a niche in your journal to be filled with something of a different nature.

I live in a retired situation, and in partial seclusion, a state favorable to thought and reflection, and would employ the little leisure I have at command, in some way that may tend to the good of my species, while it may afford me a sufficient solace and entertainment. I would fain, in short, contribute something, as much as in me lies, which may in some small degree advance the cause you have espoused—something tending to real progress in the west, and especially in Missouri, my adopted State. If I have the ability to do this, and may be admitted at all as a colaborator in the work, so as to occupy a space in your Journal, it must be in some way that is suited to my mental pursuits, and on subjects congenial to my habits of thought.

I can collect no statistics that will be of value to you or your readers. My attainments in natural science are but slender; and having little skill in Geology or any of the details of Mineralogy, I cannot pretend to enlighten your readers in what relates to natural formations, or descant on the fossil remains of an extinct generation. I am equally innocent of the methods of exploration for, and the discovery and reduction of mineral ores, as of all the Vulcanian operations of the forge and bellows. With the *Spinning Jenny* I am unacquainted, and can only conceive of it from the import of its name, as being something of the feminine gender which is concerned in spinning a thread—a sort of modern *Lachesis*. I am but little conversant with commerce or commercial affairs, nor have internal improvements occupied my attention, except in so far as relates to my own inner man. I can thus far more easily inform you as to what I cannot than what I can do.

I have been rather a thinker than an observer, and my thoughts have been employed more upon speculative subjects than upon the actualities of this visible and diurnal sphere; having concerned myself more with truths that are called contingent than with such as belong to the exact sciences.

My study—admitting Pope as sufficient authority—has been of the proper kind,* for I have endeavored with much pains-taking diligence to comprehend 'man,' although I am by no means sure that I have as yet attained to a perfect knowledge of my subject. I make some pretensions to psychological and ethical science, and have bestowed some thought on the subject of education; general

*"The proper study of mankind is man."

literature also, which I see included in your catalogue of subjects (a convenient generalization,) has engaged a large share of my attention.

And now, gentlemen, if such work as I can do, and which I leave you to judge of from this expose, is likely to suit you, and I may be admitted to the rank of a contributor to your journal, you may count on me as an occasional coadjutor.

Whatever my deficiencies may be I shall not be wanting in good will. I have the gift of perseverance, and can boast of some energy, and I will do my best. Laborers are needed for the work, and in such a cause, a writer should strip to the buff, set about his task in sturdy earnestness, and lay on as with a heavy maul when there is strong work to do. I like to give a free utterance to my thoughts, little regardful of conventional forms of expression; and whether in writing or speaking, restraints are irksome to me, and in this respect, therefore, I shall claim for myself some indulgence. Candor, however, requires me to say that I am in the habit of maintaining sentiments and opinions that are somewhat heretical, or such, at least, as the world regards as being odd and unorthodox. I hold, for example, that man was not designed by the great artificer of the universe to be an earth-worm, or mere money grubbing animal; that his physical should be held subordinate to his intellectual wants; that it behooves him, therefore, to regard those objects and pursuits which men generally are accustomed to cherish as *primary* and all important—such as the acquisition of property, influence, honors, and the emoluments of place and power, and even his proper business and avocation in life—in the light of *secondary* objects only; that what are commonly regarded as secondary pursuits, and of minor importance —such as the improvement of the mind and morals, and the cultivation of the charities and the amenities of social life—he should accustom himself to esteem as primary, and make their pursuit accordingly, the chief business of his life. On the subject of education I entertain views too, such as few of your readers, I apprehend will sympathize with.

The discipline observed in our primary or common schools, I look upon as being too mechanical; words and not things are taught. This would be less objectionable if *ideas* were always annexed to the words, but unfortunately this is but seldom the case; books are too much used, and oral instruction too little resorted to by our teachers. I contend, also, that our youth should not only be made acquainted with the usual branches of learning taught in schools, but that they should be practically trained in a variety of other useful knowledge, and that *work* should be regarded as an essential part of the education of both male and female. As for the higher institutions of learning, our colleges, &c., instead of regulating the studies and exercises of the young men sent there, in accordance with the prevailing notion and on the principle of qualifying them for the world and enabling them to gain worldly distinctions, I would have them disciplined in studies and exercises altogether *unworldly*, that when they go out into society they may be qualified for a higher task, that of diverting men's minds from mere

worldly distinctions and honors, and directing them to objects more worthy of a rational nature. With these observations, sufficiently desultory, and, as your readers may think, somewhat extravagant, I will, at present content myself.

ART. IV.—THE RISE, PROGRESS AND INFLUENCE OF THE FINE ARTS.

BY ALFRED S. WAUGH, ESQ.

If through the long vista of vanished ages, we turn the mind's eye back to the days of the world's infancy, and contemplate the gradual development of the human intellect, what a broad field do we find for the exercise of our reflective faculties!

Resplendent in all the finished symmetry of matchless form, we see man, as he came from the hand of his Creator, an unlimited sovereign, whose empire embraced all earth—exercising those powers delegated to him by the Most High, and receiving the willing homage of an infinite creation. All that he could desire, smiled in rich luxuriance around him; the fruits of the earth—like himself—flourished in full maturity; wheresoever he turned, a banquet was ready prepared to his hand by day, and the flower enamelled earth, redolent of the most delicious perfumes, presented him with a couch by night; whilst the moon, in her silvery majesty, beamed calmly on his child-like sleep, and the gentle winds of Heaven, as they fanned his glowing cheeks, or played with his tresses, murmured a sweet lullaby round the infant cradle of the father of the human race. His was undivided sway. The Omnipotent breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; endowed him with thought, reflection, invention, command; and created a little lower than angels, made him all but a God. In a happy state of innocence, he reigned in Paradise—a mighty potentate, receiving the willing homage of all created beings; and the reverence with which its inhabitants obeyed *him*, shewed *their* admiration of Him who said:

"Let us make man in our image, after our likeness; and let him have dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over the cattle, and over all the earth, and over every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth."

"So God created man in his own image. Noble in reason, infinite in faculties, in form and moving express and admirable! in action like an angel! in apprehension like a God! the beauty of the world, the paragon of animals."

Whilst in this blissful state, man knew no wants, until, lured by the tempter,

> "He eat of that forbidden fruit, whose taste
> Brought death into the world, and all our woe."

Finding himself—alas! too late—shorn of a great part of his strength, no longer loved, but feared by the inferior portion of creation, and fully awakened to a

sense of the awful curse of disobedience—he, who had basked in the approving smile of Heaven, and roamed in fearless grandeur throughout his vast domain, trembled before his late obedient, but now rebellious subjects. The dread doom reverberating to the utmost bounds of the universe, drove him to the gloomiest shades of forest solitude, in the vain hope of hiding himself from the sight of Him who fills all space.

Aware of the penalty of his disobedience, he sought protection from the attacks of those whose fierce passions had been awakened by *his* transgression; and retiring to caverns, or recesses of the rocks, found a home and a fortress from their malignity. Although these may have afforded comparative safety, his growing wants springing from his altered position in life, aroused within him his hitherto latent energies, and brought the inventive faculties into activity.

His first effort resulted in the construction of a conical hut, rudely composed of a few branches of trees, their ends resting on the ground, and their tops secured with such cords as nature presented, over which was thrown a covering of bark, or leaves to shelter him from the bright rays of the mid-day sun, and the rains and dews of night. His mind, now roused to activity, soon devised means of erecting a more substantial and commodious hut. Placing in the earth trunks of trees, cut to a convenient length, in an upright position, forming a square, over which others were laid horizontally for a roof, he provided himself at once with a domicile, and a fortification, in which he dwelt in comparative ease and security, and in a measure bid defiance to danger.

Thus, then, we find architecture almost coeval with man's existence, springing from necessity, and rising in importance with the increase of the human family.

The early children of men, surrounded by flocks and herds, in which their whole wealth consisted, led a pastoral life, divided into families and tribes, to whose patriarchal chiefs or heads, they submitted as children to parents.

It is probable at the commencement of this stage of society, from the paucity of their number, that peace and harmony dwelt among them; but in the progress of time, as they grew to multitudes, all the worst passions of their nature burst forth as their jarring interests came in contact—strife, foray, and battle became daily occurrences; with them *might* was *right*, and the strong trampled upon the weak. He whom each tribe acknowledged as its chief, felt the weight of government increase with the growth of his people; and anxious for their safety and welfare, added improvements to the original log hut. Bastions and towers arose from the exigencies of the times, until at length military architecture engrossed his attention and became an art of the first importance.

Finding the arms which nature had provided insufficient in their various melee, recourse was had to artificial weapons; and in the invention of these, man's constructive powers were called into play. War and the chase became mere pastime—an every day employment; military distinction, and a thirst for fame, reigned paramount in the human breast; spears, swords, helmets, shields, and other armor

were fabricated to suit the growing wants of the belligerents; each day's experience quickened invention; improvement followed improvement, until at last the warrior stood forth encased in a coat of mail, whose brazen plates turned aside the winged arrow, and made the long spear stop in its deadly course.

Experience, that sure test of genius, laid open his innate powers; each day's revolution drew forth his slumbering faculties; and Time, as he winged his onward course, ripened and matured all his endowments.

Having occupied a conspicuous position during life, his self love led him to seek a place of distinction even after death; thence *caves*, *tumuli*, tombs, mausoleums, and pyramids, developed his taste, and threw around his last cold bed a shadowy remembrance of his past glory.

Instinctively aware of his divine origin, and anxious to testify a sense of gratitude for his creation and preservation, man pictured to himself some immaterial being to whose beneficence he was indebted for existence; but as the human intellect was still shrouded in the mantle of gloom and obscurity, his first conceptions of a divinity led him to adopt rude pillars of stone as representations of that celestial being, whose all-pervading presence and influence is felt and acknowledged by every inhabitant of the universe. Or probably viewing the heavenly bodies, bright and sparkling as they moved throughout the firmament, they were the first objects which nature and reason taught him to reverence, or, it may be, that raising his thoughts to a more conspicuous object, he looked upon the sun, and paid him divine honors as the great creator and comforter of the whole earth.

This, when we come to consider the infant mind of man, was no unreasonable idolatry;—it sprang from a knowledge of the powers of that magnificent orb, and of the benefits derived from his vivifying rays. To him, therefore, were erected magnificent temples, "and towering obelisks reared their sculptured heads far up into his resplendent dominions, around whose base, millions of pagan worshippers bowed with reverential awe."*

Man, the master work of all creation, whose commanding form, instinct with the divinity, impressed all other beings with a sense of awe and reverence, naturally conceived himself the image of his Maker, and the being he would adore. Therefore, he formed an image of himself, as the most appropriate symbol through which to offer up worship to the grand first cause. Thence, we may suppose, arose the sculpture of the human form. But, having given sufficient scope to the imagination to revel amid the fields of unrecorded time, let us now look upon the page of history, and see if we cannot find data whereon to fix our observations. And to this end must we turn to Egypt, that vast sepulchre of extinct learning, science and wisdom, for information; some of whose mighty works of art, proudly tower aloft, and still bid defiance to the devouring hand of time—imperishable records of superior intellect, in days long since faded into the dim and shadowy past.

*Lessing.

The land of the Pharaohs, in many respects, is the most interesting on the face of the earth; for, to it can the scholar, the antiquarian, and philosopher direct his researches, and from its inexhaustible fields reap rich harvests of literature, science and art. And as it has been, and still is, regarded as the cradle of science, as well as the first seat of regular government, we are accustomed to ascribe the rudiments of our arts and literature, to the singularly ingenious people who occupied the banks of the Nile, at a period long prior to the records of civil history. Hence, the historian takes that country as the starting point in the pursuit of every object of a moral or intellectual nature.

The wonderful magnitude and durability of her public works, which were executed by her ancient inhabitants, have been the admiration of every writer who has visited Egypt; and her temples, tombs, and obelisks have furnished occupation to many generations of the wise and great, of every civilized nation, on the face of the globe.

"Of this wonderful people," says the Rev. Dr. Russel, "there is nothing more remarkable than that their greatest efforts were made at a time, when, in regard to religious faith, they were in the grossest ignorance and darkness; when light sprang up around them, their taste, or their zeal seemed to decay—yielding to the dominion of barbarian tribes, who were indebted to them for all their knowledge, as well as for their superstition. Persia added nothing to the arts, or architectural improvements of Egypt. The Greeks presumed not to rival their masters in the construction of temples, pyramids, and labyrinths; and the propagation of true religion, under the Roman Emperors, put an end to the lofty imaginations which the subjects of the Pharaohs were wont to realize in their national structures. Christianity, which blesses every land where it is cordially received, contributed most of all to the extinction of that spirit, which had impelled the Egyptians to undertake and carry into effect works so vast and imperishable, as those which still call forth the astonishment of the traveler. The days of their mythology were those of their proudest glory, and we may add, of their greatest happiness and freedom. This blind belief in the divine origin of their monarchs, as also, the inspiring dogma that the soul was to return to the ancient tenement in the flesh, encouraged them to erect monuments which might resist the pressure of ten thousand years, and carry the fame of their authors to the very threshold of eternity. But when the exercise of their primitive superstition was no longer allowed, and another faith was introduced in its place, the temples were gradually abandoned; and the spirit of the Egyptians, subdued by the severest political oppression, yielded at length to a more prevailing power, which directed their hopes and fears to the contemplation of loftier and more spiritual objects."

As the great aim of the Egyptians seems to be durability in all their works of art, we cannot but admire the massive gradeur of their architecture; but the very essentials to the production of the sublime, which we there behold, renders them

less pleasing to the refined and sensitive mind. Terror, gloom and obscurity, being the main requisites, and so absolutely necessary to the successful despotism of a tyrannical hierarchy, it became incumbent to make architecture subservient to their purposes. Hence, we do not feel those gentler emotions on contemplating their stupendous fabrics, which we do on beholding the elegant structures of the more liberal Greeks.

Architecture among this remote people, was, in a measure, confined to one order; and owing to the peculiar nature of their government, it was impossible for its professors to expand the wings of genius—to soar aloft, and try their powers in new and unexplored regions. Not thus did the noble Greeks check the aspirations of their gifted sons. Although deriving their learning and arts from the Egyptians, they enjoyed a boundless scope in every pursuit that could tend to elevate the standard of intellect. No arbitrary fetters shackled the free exercise of thought. Literature and art roamed abroad, untrammeled amid the realms of fancy. No bonded serf dared pollute, even with his footsteps, the hallowed threshold of *nature's aristocracy*. The pen, the pencil, and chisel were wielded by freemen alone, and millions paid homage at the shrine of genius.

In the enlightened land of Greece, under a freer, nobler, and more poetic form of government, architecture attained its utmost perfection. Her artists having a field wherein the taste and fancy could play unfettered, soon found from the very exercise of mental liberty, the true point of excellence. She who had started in the pursuit, ages after Egypt had arrived at her greatest splendor, soon outstript her in the nobler arts. Her hill-tops were crowned with temples, whose exquisite symmetry served as models to futurity. The genius of her sculptors peopled her groves with gods, and heroes. Her valleys responded to the eloquence of her orators; and music and poetry floated on the breath of Heaven, in unison with the melody of nature—giving to her a splendor of renown, hallowed and undying. The influence of her arts were felt and appreciated. Her warriors were brave; her statesmen wise; her philosophers profound; and her orators eloquent in an eminent degree. As a people, they were polished and refined; for her arts threw a charm o'er the land, "giving to man a higher perfection—tuning his spirit softer and clearer—opening his heart to refined pleasures—and bringing him above all things nearer the good."*

During the age of Pericles the arts attained to a pinnacle of greatness, beyond which, it is thought by many, they cannot rise; and when we reflect for one moment on the prospect of the undying glory that was held out to the successful artist, the grand secret of their excellence is at once solved. Honors, the greatest that could be paid to man, were showered on him who triumphed in the race. Immortality, and a statue among the gods themselves, were the rewards of genius. Is it to be wondered at, then, that excellence crowned all their efforts? No! for there is a motive in true genius, that raises him who possesses it, far above the

*Goethe.

sordid desire of accumulating a horde of yellow ore; there is "*a fond desire, a longing after immortality.*"

Although authors cannot agree as to which should be awarded the meed of pre-eminence—Painting or Sculpture—we are inclined to think that the latter ought to take precedence; for, we find in the Bible, accounts of images even before the flood, and it is likely that the first efforts in the arts would be made in a material to give form, instead of color. The very art would suggest itself to the untutored mind of man, as being capable of conveying a representation more in accordance with his own form, than any production of the pencil on a flat surface.*

When carried to perfection, (as in the days of Pericles,) it admits only of the severe, or grand in its style, and will not be trifled with. From the lofty pinnacle on which it has long since been placed, there is no descent—no bending to the common-place trickeries of the pencil, nor stooping to broad farce in caricature. It is more durable, therefore better calculated to transmit to posterity the achievements of men eminent for feats of arms, knowledge of letters, and profound philosophy.

Like its sisters—Painting and Poetry—Sculpture is indebted to the lofty imaginings of an inspired mind—a mind capable of embodying beings beyond the scope of mortal vision, and, as it were, causing the "sons of God to walk among the children of men." It seizes upon the realities of earth, and hands down to future generations the imperishable records of by-gone years—attests the fame of nations, and gives to the world, at one view, what would have cost the historian whole pages. Religion is its mother, and History its guardian angel.

When nations crumble into dust, and imperial cities lie level with the ground, Sculpture remains, a mute, but eloquent proclaimer of other times, and other men. The traveler, as he journeys along the consecrated shores of the Nile, or treads the hallowed soil of Greece, holds converse with departed ages. The Egyptian pyramids, the ruined temples of Thebes, and the refined productions of the Grecian chisel, speak feelingly to his breast; the very air he breathes is redolent with art; every breeze bears upon its pinions the aspirations of genius; and he holds communion with the mighty spirits of the past. No matter what his native language may be, or what the language of the land over which his footsteps wander, Art speaks intelligibly to him in an universal tongue. The scholar may be better enabled to understand and appreciate its beauties, yet its influence is felt by the unlettered. The civilized and savage are alike alive to its powers, and all nations and people have bowed at the footstool of its majesty.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

*The Indians of North America make their first efforts in the arts in carving.

ART. V.—FURNACE FOR CONSUMING SMOKE.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—From the rapid progress of St. Louis, it bids fair to outstrip many of the principal cities in the Union, and as its future growth will depend mainly upon the increase of its manufactures, it will become the duty of the city authorities to look to the health of the city, for the benefit of those who reside in it. The inhabitants, composed as they will be, principally of artizans, operatives, and laborers, necessarily confined in close rooms and a vitiated atmosphere, during the hours of labor, should, when liberated from their daily toil, be supplied with a healthy atmosphere, or else our city will become the emporium of disease, in place of energy, genius and skill.

I am of opinion that one of the detrimental effects of a manufacturing city upon the health of its inhabitants, is the volumes of smoke emitted from the furnaces necessary in the various processes of manufacturing. These volumes of smoke impregnate the atmosphere, and render it unfit for the demands of our nature. It is not my design, at present, to say what arbitrary laws the City Council should enact to suppress this nuisance; but I wish to show that it is the interest of the producers of the nuisance to turn it to a useful purpose. Some will ask, how is this to be done? I answer, by burning the smoke—by converting the large volumes of carbon into bright flames, and thus generating from twenty to thirty per centum more heat from the same amount of fuel than is now generated. This economy has many dependencies. It depends partly on the fireman, but mainly on the construction of the furnace. The furnaces should be so constructed as to admit a proper quantity of oxygen to combine with the carbon, so as to produce combustion. The plan of furnace that appears to have met this desideratum most successfully, is that of C. Y. Williams, styled the Argand Furnace. Its construction is somewhat as follows: Running at right angles (with the length of the boilers,) through the bed of the boilers, is an air chamber two and a half feet wide, and three feet deep; on each end of this air chamber is a sliding door, to regulate the quantity of atmosphere to be used in consuming the smoke; on the top of this air chamber are projecting tubes, running up to, and between the boilers; these tubes are pierced with small holes. This air chamber and the tubes are situated behind the bridge of the furnace When the smoke from the furnace is passing between these projecting tubes, the oxygen of the atmosphere mixes with the volume of carbon, thereby producing combustion. The fact is established, that by this plan, from twenty-five to forty per cent. more heat is obtained from the same amount of fuel, than is obtained from the furnace in common use. This is one plan of furnace for consuming smoke. I will favor your readers with some others in my next, it being my desire to be useful to the world at large. Yours respectfully, M. F. P.

St. Louis, May 7th, 1848.

ART. VI.—SUBSOIL PLOUGHING AND WATER FURROWS.

We are under many obligations to Judge Williams for his interesting communication upon the subject of Subsoil Ploughing and Water Furrows. The Judge is a pioneer of the right stamp—always ahead of others in the country in which he lives. He was a pioneer in manufacturing—next we find him leading the way in agricultural improvements; and last, but to us not less interesting, we have the honor of enrolling his name as the first contributor to the Western Journal upon the subject of Agriculture. We trust that now when the ground has been broken by one of so much experience, others will not be backward in following his example.

Messrs. Editors—I desire through the medium of your valuable journal, to call the attention of my brother farmers to the subject of subsoil ploughing. The subsoil plough has been in use for many years in England, and also in the eastern States; but as far as my knowledge extends, I am the first individual who introduced it west of the Mississippi river.

The advantages of subsoil ploughing may be stated as follows: First, by increasing the depth of pasture for the roots of corn and other plants, they are not only furnished with a more permanent supply of moisture and air, but the valuable properties of the subsoil are made available without being mixed with the vegetable mould, which is left as light and as friable as before. Secondly, by enlarging the capacity of the pasture to hold water, the pulverized soil is prevented from washing off; for it very rarely rains so hastily as to carry off the soil until it is fully saturated with water; and it seldom happens that more rain falls at any one time than will saturate a soil from eighteen to twenty inches in depth. Thirdly, it serves to drain soils that are so constituted as to hold water, and thus enables the farmer to prepare for planting earlier in the season, as well as to work his crop in a shorter time after the heavy rains which usually fall in the spring and early part of summer; and lastly, it enables the crop to stand drought with much less injury; for the roots of corn, especially, will penetrate to the bottom of the pasture, although it should be two feet in depth, and here, it will find sufficient moisture to sustain the plant in the driest seasons which happen in this country. It is needless to say that these, result in the final advantage of a more certain and larger crop. The advantages accruing from subsoil ploughing will doubtless depend somewhat upon the depth of the vegetable mould, and the quality or properties of the subsoil; but I think it may be safely affirmed that every description of soil is benefitted by the process—and that by the application of a little manure, the average crop of St. Louis county would be increased from fifty to one hundred per cent. by the use of the subsoil plough.

I made the pattern for my subsoil plough, had the irons cast, and stocked it myself—it proved to be an excellent model, and works as well as I could desire. My method of using it is as follows: First with a three horse plough I make a

furrow about eight inches deep, turning the ground well, that the soil may not be mixed with the clay—then fallow with the subsoil plough, running below the level of the surface about twenty inches, which makes the entire depth about two feet below the surface when flushed up. The next furrow of the mould-board plough turns upon the furrow made by the subsoil plough, and replaces the soil upon the clay without mixing them together. The subsoil plough requires a team of four or five yoke of oxen it is true, but this is a small matter when we consider the advantages derived from the process; and the labor and cost dwindles to almost nothing, when we further consider that the process does not require to be repeated oftener than once in from ten to fifteen years. Besides, the plough costs but very little, and one would be sufficient to do the work of a whole neighborhood for many years.

I broke twenty acres with this plough last fall, and the ground ploughs very light and fine this spring; it is old ground, without stumps, and broke to the depth above mentioned.

I have also found great benefit in making water furrows in rolling land, or where there are long descents. These are very easily laid off by the use of a level. By running the plow several times in the same furrow, and removing the loose earth with hoes, the work is soon done; and if blue grass seed be sown on the lower side, and a little attention be paid to mending up broken places for the first year, until the grass is well set, the work is complete and becomes a permanent improvement; and if properly projected, is almost a complete protection against the washing of the soil. By means of these improvements, I can put my land in first rate order with the plough and harrow, and there is no danger of my corn being washed up by the rain. When I have planted my crop, which I always do by the first of May, I consider that the work necessary to make it, is half done.

My neighbors thought very little of my subsoil plough or water furrows, when I first introduced the use of them. Some said I was at my old tricks, trying to find out something new, and that the profits of my experiment would be unequal to the labor. Of late, however, some have begun to think better of my speculations, as they were pleased to call my experiments in the beginning.

My farm has been in cultivation about twenty years, and by the use of water furrows, and the application of a little manure, my land is more productive and my crops more certain and abundant now, than when it was first cleared.

To give your readers the best evidence that I sympathise with you in a desire to develop the resources of the west, and to make it as independent of other countries as practicable, I will mention, that about twenty-eight years ago I built a double wool carding machine, in my own shop, and put it in operation for the convenience of the country. About the same time I built and put in operation the first cotton gin that was built in the State; and the year after, I put in operation a cotton spinning factory. This was about the first attempt at spinning cotton

by machinery in Missouri. These works were put in operation at the place where the county seat of Montgomery county is now located.

I am aware that the low price of produce discourages many farmers from improving their soils; such concluding, as it would seem, that there was nothing worth working for except money. This I esteem one of the great errors of the age. Admit that the farmer does not desire to increase the quantity of his crop, yet he can surely have no objection to diminishing the amount of his labor, while at the same time he increases the value of his land. Suppose that by improving his land and its culture, he can produce the same quantity that he now produces with two-thirds of the labor now employed, this would relieve him from labor two days in each week. Hence, he has one-third of his time at his own disposal; this may be appropriated to the culture of the garden and orchard, and while he would thus be enlarging his physical comforts, he would cultivate and improve his taste for *horticulture*, that most refining of all pursuits. Or, if haply he should possess a desire to improve his mind by enlarging his stock of general information, he would have time for this purpose also. Are such important advantages as these to be neglected? Surely not. It is clear that the time thus gained is *wealth;* for what better use could be made of money than to appropriate it to such purposes as I have enumerated? Think of this, brother farmers. Don't be discouraged from improving your lands or your mode of culture, because produce is low; nor because your land is already rich, but gain all the time you can and appropriate this to the embellishment of the home of your affections, and to mental and social improvement. These are the principal objects that are worth laboring for, and their attainment is in your power.

ART. VII.—JERUSALEM ARTICHOKE.

Messrs. Editors—*Gentlemen:*—My attention has been attracted to articles in Fessenden's Gardener of 1832, and also in E. Deming's Farmer's Reporter of 1834, and Skinner's Farmer's Library, No. 7, for 1846, on the culture of the Jerusalem Artichoke. My opinion is, that the proper mode of cultivating that valuable root is yet little known. Many have thought that the best mode of raising them was on the borders of a fence; others have planted them, and then turned in their hogs to perfect the cultivation, and so on, till the artichoke turned out to be a troublesome weed. You will find a specimen of them in the American bottom, of some thousand acres, cultivated in this way, having an abundance of stalk, but a very small quantity of roots.

In France, on the estate of George W. Lafayette, the only place where it was cultivated on a large scale, I observed that the tubers were planted whole, eight inches apart, in furrows only two feet apart, producing in proportion to corn cul-

tivated in this country, on thin soil, four stalks to the hill. The artichoke should never be planted whole, but ought to be cut in many pieces, not allowing more than two eyes or sprouts to the hill, one foot apart, and the furrows three and a half feet apart. If planted in this way, I am confident that they will yield from *two to three thousand bushels to the acre.* By way of experiment, I planted them in this way last year. They yielded me one peck to the hill. Some of these plants were dug in the presence of Capt. Eiler, James Sigerson and Gen. Milburn, all of whom were astonished at the extraordinary production. The artichoke should never be planted successively, on the same field, but should be carefully dug, so as to rid yourself of that troublesome weed, so called, when you allow the hogs to root them out. Corn would be the most suitable for a successive crop. The artichoke should be planted as early as the ground will admit, selecting always the largest for seed. They keep well all winter in the ground; the most intense cold does not affect them, nor are they ever attacked by insects, or disease. I am convinced that when this root is known and properly cultivated, it will take the first rank of all other roots subjected to field culture. By an accurate chemical analysis, it is found to contain one-third more nutriment than the beet.

Yours respectfully,

Carondelet Township, May 12th, 1848. D. CARLIN.

ART. VIII.—SHOULD THE LOOM COME TO THE COTTON, OR THE COTTON GO TO THE LOOM?

To the cotton grower this is a question of the highest importance. His future prosperity depends on the correctness of the answer he shall make to it, and we desire, therefore, to offer for his consideration some views that may tend to enable him to answer it understandingly. The enlightened editor of the New Orleans Commercial Bulletin—in the centre of light and interest on the subject—remarks:

"We buy, in New Orleans, negro cotton goods manufactured from one bale of cotton, for about the same sum that we receive for five bales of raw cotton; the other four bales being for the labor and profits, which are divided between the ship owner, Northern or English operatives, mill proprietors, agents, and commission merchants; all of which would be retained at home, for the benefit of our own citizens, had we cotton mills established here."

Having bestowed some reflection on the above statement, we respectfully invite our readers to accompany us in an examination of the *nature of the exchanges* to which it refers.

The number of working hands engaged in the production of cotton may, with some approximation to exactness, and near enough for our purposes, be set down at 800,000, and the average product per hand at 1,000* pounds, giving us the total

*Rather too low an estimate—EDITORS.

product 800,000,000. Each hand, however, is supposed to cultivate about as much land in grain as in cotton. The labor employed in the production of cotton is, therefore, equivalent to that of 400,000 persons, and the product is the equivalent of 2,000 pounds, or five bales to the hand.

A cotton factory containing 250 operatives, only one-fourth of whom are males, will convert 2,000 bales of cotton into cloth. This gives eight bales per hand. Five persons in a mill will, therefore, convert into cloth as much cotton as eight will produce; and of these five, three-fourths are females quite too young and feeble for efficient field labor. A fair estimate of the quantity of power needed for manufacturing and producing, would give to the work of production more than twice as much as is required for that of conversion or manufacture; but we will assume that five persons are required for the manufacture of that which is produced by eight.

The labor of production is as valuable as that of conversion, and a just distribution of the proceeds, would give to the planter eight parts out of thirteen, leaving the remaining five for the persons employed in converting the cotton into cloth. We see, however, that the planter gives five bales for one, or a hundred for twenty; whereas, if the distribution were in the just ratio of the labor employed, the planter should have sixty, and the manufacturer forty.

This is, we believe, less than a true and just distribution would give to the planter; but to avoid the possibility of error, we will assume that the product should be equally divided between the producer of the cotton and the parties by whom it is converted into cloth. Two bales of raw cotton should then pay for one bale when manufactured; yet here we see, on the authority of the editor of the New Orleans Commercial Bulletin, that the planter has to give five for one. What, then, becomes of his remaining three? Assuredly no planter should rest satisfied until he can answer this question, to the end that as far as practicable, he should escape from so heavy a tax. To answer the question, let us endeavor to trace the course of operation to which the five bales of cotton are subjected from the time of leaving the plantation until they are returned in the shape of one bale converted into cloth. First, we have the transportation to the place of shipment, in which a part is swallowed up.* Next comes the commission to agents in New Orleans or Charleston. After this comes transportation to England, or to New York or Boston on its way to Lowell or Manchester. Next, commissions in New York, Boston, Liverpool and Manchester. Next comes wages to operatives and profits to master manufacturers. Following this, we have transportation from Lowell or Manchester, and thence to New Orleans, with an endless

*Of the expense of this first movement, some idea may be formed by those who have seen it coming over dreadful roads, up to the hub, dragged slowly along, twenty, thirty or forty miles, as we have seen it coming into Natchez and Vicksburg, hauled by five yoke of oxen carrying 2,700 to 3,000 pounds, and so slowly that motion was scarcely perceptible. So many perish in the yoke in winter and spring, that it has been said, with some exaggeration, that you might walk on dead oxen from Jackson to Vicksburg. That was before the railroad was made. A wagon is loaded up, say fourteen miles from Natchez, and started at night, and reaches there in time to get back the next night time enough to "load up." Thus ten oxen have been wearing and tearing, and dropping their manure on the road for twenty-four hours to make one load.

train of charges and commissions, the result of all which is, that the planter gets back *one* bale for five, when he should have, by just distribution of profits in proportion to labor, *almost three*. He gives five for one instead of two for one, (the real naked difference between producing and converting, making a most liberal allowance for the latter,) and the other three are irrecoverably lost to him.

Let us now inquire of what all the charges consist, and we shall find that they resolve themselves almost altogether into the single article of *food*, the only others being a small amount of clothing and lodging. The cart and the wagon are composed chiefly of the food eaten by the men who made them. The road by which they travel in conveying the cotton to the place of shipment, is composed of, or chiefly based upon, the food of the men who made it. The steamboats by which it is conveyed to New Orleans represent the food of the men who built them, of those who navigate them, and of those who provide the fuel. The commissions represent the food of the men who sell the cotton, of the servants who wait upon them, of the men who build houses for them to live in, and carriages for them to ride in. The packet-ship represents the food of the men who felled and sawed the timber, and of those who transported it; of the men who dug and smelted the ore and fashioned the iron used in her construction, and the carpenters and workmen by whom it was put together. The work of twisting, and weaving, and finishing, represents the food of the twisters, and weavers, and finishers. If now we inquire what proportion the latter bears to the whole quantity, we shall find that it is far less than one-fourth of the whole. We will, however, assume that it is one fourth, and then show what becomes of the other three bales that the planter pays for one of manufactured cotton.

Debtor.	*Creditor.*
To five bales of cotton.	By *one* bale of cotton, twisted, woven and finished.
	By *one* bale given for the food of the persons who twisted, and wove and finished it.
	By *three* bales given for the food of the persons intermediately employed in carrying it to the twister and weaver, and bringing back to the planter the one bale twisted and woven ready for use.

This would seem to be a bad bargain. The planter will perhaps say, however, that we have allowed nothing for the use of the machinery employed in the conversion. True, we have not. Neither have we charged anything for the use of the machinery of production. Let us now see how that matter stands:

The average production of cotton does not exceed 300 pounds of clean wool to the acre. To produce two thousand bales would require, then, nearly twenty-seven hundred acres, actually under cultivation, to say nothing of all the rest of the plantation not in cultivation. The average amount of labor, per acre, for fitting these lands for production, including fencing, machinery buildings, gin-

houses, &c., is at least one hundred days, and we should be safe in putting it much higher.† This would give 270,000 days of labor. A mill that will convert these two thousand bales into cloth, does not represent more than 70,000 days of labor. The machinery of production is, therefore, more costly than that of conversion, in the ratio of four to one.

Under this head, then, the account will now stand thus:

Debtor.		*Creditor.*	
To machinery for producing four bales of cotton,	16	By machinery for converting one bale of cotton,	1

The transaction appears to be a very unprofitable one. The planter is giving five bales of cotton, produced by the aid of very costly machinery, for one bale converted into cloth by the aid of comparatively inexpensive machinery. He gives four bales for doing that which, if the machinery were on or near his plantation, might be done for less than one bale.

In the performance of this operation, he is always in fact, as we have seen, buying food and paying for it in cotton. He is always paying for it in distant markets, where its price is high, while he or his countrymen are perpetually engaged in the effort to sell it at low prices at home. In getting his yard of cloth he pays for food consumed in the steamboat—in New Orleans—on shipboard—in Liverpool and Manchester, at which latter place it is probably four times higher than at which he would gladly sell on his plantation, and he wastes a vast quantity because of the want of a market near him and the heavy cost incident to its transportation to distant markets.

One acre of land yields 300 pounds of cotton. One hand in a mill converts eight bales, or 3,200 pounds, the produce of more than ten acres.

An acre of land, well cultivated, will supply food for one person who will convert these eight bales into cloth.

The planter gives four bales for having one converted, or eight for the conversion of two, according to the testimony of an enlightened journalist residing in the heart of the cotton region, and speaking under the benefit of the best lights on the subject.

Let us now see how the account stands again:

Debtor.	*Creditor.*
To the use of five acres of cotton land.	By the use of one-eighth of an acre of food land.

It is obvious that nearly the whole of these bales are swallowed up in freights, charges, commissions, &c., and equally obvious that these charges consist almost altogether of food, an article which the planter can supply in almost unlimited quantity. Could these charges, occurring between the planter on the one side, and the weaver and the twister on the other, be saved, the planter would obtain more than one bale of cloth for two of cotton. To accomplish this, there is but

†B. Smith, Esq., one of the wealthiest planters in the southwest, told us that it cost him $70 an acre to clear and prepare heavy timbered land for cotton on the Mississippi bottom.

one mode of proceeding, and that is to persuade (by taking measures to make it the interest of its owners,) the *machinery to come to the cotton*, and thus obviate the necessity for sending the cotton to the machinery. At present we seem to be pursuing the same course that would be pursued by the man who should expend hundreds of days of labor in clearing and cultivating land for the production of wheat, and then wasting two-thirds of it on the road to and from the distant mill for the want of the application of three or four thousand days of labor to put up a mill on his own land. A grist-mill costing 5,000 days of labor will grind all the grain produced upon land that has cost 200,000, and perhaps 500,000 days of labor to place it in its existing condition; and yet the man above referred to, with such a force and plantation, wastes more annually than would build such an one. So is it with our planters and farmers. We see in every little community that mills speedily rise for the conversion of grain into flour, and are satisfied with one-eighth toll; and so we see in every neighborhood where there are timber and little water power, saw-mills are got up for converting lumber into boards, and with each such operation, flour and boards are obtained at less cost of labor, and the farmer has to give less of wheat, and of timber, to have them converted into flour and boards. What would the wheat grower say who should have to give five bushels for getting one back in flour‡—and what should the cotton grower say to getting one bale of cotton in the form of cloth? Let him reflect on this, and then answer the following one: Why should not every community of somewhat larger size have, in like manner, its own place for converting cotton into cloth? Could that be done, the planter would obtain half the cloth yielded by his cotton.

The latter will, at first view, probably deny this. He will say: If I sell my cotton to go to Manchester, it will produce me five cents. If I sell it to the manufacturer on the ground, he will give me no more. If I buy English cloth it will cost me ten. If I had a manufacturer on the ground, I should pay the same. So he might for a time; but the manufacturer would make large profits, and competition would speedily arise, and then he would have his cloth on the ground as cheaply as he could buy it in Lowell, and here would be one saving. This, however, is not all. Let the planter look around and see how much of the labor of his neighborhood is wasted for want of the demand that would be produced by the vicinity of the factory. Then let him reflect upon the advantage to be derived from having, in that factory, a place of employment throughout the year, of the persons who might, in case of need, aid him in his picking, and thus save for him the labor that is now lost on cotton wasted in the field, or overtaken there by frost. Let him consider these things, and he will probably find that the

‡In some places in Virginia—in the Rappahannock, for instance—the farmer does pay as much as one barrel to get four transported to Fredericksburgh, apparently not stopping to calculate at what price and what yield per acre that becomes a losing game, and apparently not reflecting that while they pay twenty five cents for transporting one dollar's worth of wheat, they could transport the same weight, or fifteen dollars worth of wool—or seven dollars and fifty cents worth of cheese, or eighteen dollars worth of live beef—at the same cost!

loss in them alone, is equal to the value of the labor required for the conversion of all the cotton in the neighborhood into yarn. If they would be saved, and he could thus, with the same labor, send yarn to market instead of cotton, he and his neighbors would be great gainers by the operation.

Having done this, let him look to the price at which he sells his corn and see what would be the difference to him if he had a market on the ground in consequence of the conversion of some of his neighbors into mechanics, mill operatives, &c. Instead of remaining poor on the produce of little pieces of land, they would obtain good wages, and consume double their present quantity, while producing none. He would at once save much of the cost of transportation. He would sell food at home instead of having to buy it, with cost of commissions and transportation from his own neighborhood added to it to increase its price at Manchester or Lowell, and all would be a great gainer by the operation.

Let him then look to his cleared land, and study what would be its value if all the manure yielded by his hay, and oats, and corn, and fodder, went back upon the land, instead of being wasted on the road, and if all of that yielded by his wheat and corn remained upon the ground instead of going to Lowell or Manchester, and see if he would not be a gainer by the operation.

Let him then look to his uncleared land, and calculate how much it would cost him to destroy the timber.§ Let him then calculate the value of the timber, if the factory were near him, and if the blacksmith and the shoemaker, the hatter and the tanner, the bricklayer and the carpenter, wanted houses; and if a town were growing up around the mill, and its inhabitants wanting pork and meal, and milk and beef, and flour, and potatoes, and mutton, and see if he would not be a gainer by the operation.

Let him look to the quantity of land upon which this timber stands, and on which he is paying or losing interest. Let him then look to the quality of that land, and compare it with what he now cultivates. Let him calculate how many bushels of potatoes it would yield, and compare their value, when consumed upon the ground, with that of the 300 pounds of cotton now yielded by an acre, and see if he would not be a gainer by the operation.

Let him add all these things together and see if he would not save all the freights and commissions; even although he obtained no more for his cotton, and paid as much for his cloth. Let him see if he would not obtain the full value of his cotton, instead of, as now, obtaining but one-third of it.

The truth is, that the great cities and towns of the world are built up out of the spoils of the farmer and planter. Looking around here in New York, or in Philadelphia, or Boston, it is not possible to avoid being struck with the number of persons who live by merely exchanging—passing from the producer to the consumer—producing nothing themselves. Wagons and wagoners, carts and

§ A planter of the highest respectability, informed us at Montgomery, that he had in vain offered twenty dollars an acre to have two hundred acres cleared for cotton. Why don't the planters of Montgomery unite to build a steam factory.

cartmen, boats and boatmen, ships and sailors, are every where carrying about cotton, and wool, and corn, and wheat, and flour, as if for the pleasure of doing it. The man of Tennessee sends his cotton to Manchester to be twisted. His corn goes along with it to feed the man that twists it. It leaves him worth twenty cents. By the time it is consumed by the Manchester spinner, it is worth, perhaps, a dollar. The laborer buys it at that price. The manufacturer gives him a dollar to pay for it, and he charges it to the cloth at $1 10. The corn and cotton become cloth, and the Tennessee man buys it back, paying—as we see by the New Orleans paper—*five bales for one!* He can sometimes send his corn, but he can never send his potatoes, and the reason why he cannot is, that they are of the class of commodities of which the earth yields so largely, that they will not pay freight. The only things he can raise for market, are those of which the earth yields little, and that will therefore pay freight. He raises three hundred pounds of cotton, all of which goes to market, bringing him back but sixty fashioned in cloth; returning nothing to the land of what it drew out of the land, whereas, if he had consumers near him, he would raise almost as many bushels of potatoes, the manure for which would go upon the land to enrich it, and make himself rich. He could then afford to clear, and ditch, and drain, and cultivate the richest land, now covered with timber, or with water.

Why does he not do these things? Why does he not bring the consumer to his side? Why does he continue, year after year, to send his grain, or cotton, to the distant mill, instead of bringing, once and forever, the mill to him? The reason may be found in the newspapers every day. Last year cotton manufacturers, wool manufacturers, and iron manufacturers were prosperous. Now they are stopping their work. Many are already ruined, and many more are likely so to be. Why is this? Does it arise out of any change in our own affairs? It does not. It arises out of changes abroad. Last year England made railroads, and consumption then was large. This year she does not make roads, and consumption is small. Last year we built factories and furnaces. This year manufacturers and furnace builders are ruined. All of them would be ruined, had they not a tariff of protection, inadequate as is that of 1846, to give them that protection that is needed to secure them against such changes. Prosperous they would now be had the tariff of 1842 remained unaltered; and the thousands employed in them would have remained profitable consumers for the farmers, instead of being driven over the country to become the rivals of the farmer, increasing the quantity of provisions of which there is already a redundance.

We may now readily see why the planter of South Carolina and Georgia, and Tennessee, has not the consumer near him; why he continues year after year, wasting his cotton and his corn on the road going to the mill, instead of bringing the mill to him. The whole system of trade, by which the cotton and the food are thus forced to go to the mill instead of the mill coming to them, is unsound and unnatural, and therefore irregular, unstable and ruinous. Revulsions are

and must be perpetual occurrences; and none can risk their means in factories or furnaces, but men who can afford to incur great risks for the sake of exorbitant profits. The whole system is one of mere gambling, and so will it continue to be while the trade of the country remains thus liable to be deranged by changes in the action of foreign nations, over which we can have no control; and so long will the planter continue to give five bales of cotton for one of cloth. Whenever he shall determine to take for himself the protection necessary to enable him to bring the spinner and weaver to his side, there to eat the corn, while converting the cotton into cloth, he will save all the vast expense of transportation to which he is now subjected; he will increase the market for his cotton at home, and he will obtain better prices for the cotton and corn that he sends into the general market of the world. All this he will do when he shall have arrived at the conclusions that the question of protection, is in fact and in truth, one of *protection to the farmer and planter*, and not of protection to the manufacturer. The latter with his machinery can go where he will. The planter's land cannot change its place. The former will come to him, as the grist-miller does, all over the country if he can be assured of adequate and uniform remuneration, and the freight and commissions will then be saved. If the manufacturer cannot safely do this—if he continue to be, as in past times he has been, forbidden by the fear of change in parties and party policy, he will continue to compel the planters' produce to come to him, and commission and freights will continue expensive and wasteful as now they are.

Let the planter examine carefully the changes that have occurred in the prices of cotton in the last twenty years, and see if they have not been produced by the perpetual revulsions of England. Let him look around him now, and see if the change under which he now suffers is not due to the fact that he employs for the sale of his great product, *a broker that becomes bankrupt every four or five years.* Throughout the world there exists at this moment, a greater power of consumption than existed twelve months since; and yet cotton has fallen to little more than half, and that for no reason but that English banks and bankers, English manufacturers and merchants, have become bankrupt. Why should the American planter be longer dependent on them? All the cloth made out of our cotton will be wanted and used whether manufactured here or there, and will need as many consumers to be employed in the work of conversion. Why, then, should we not bring the machinery of conversion to the side of the wool and the cotton, instead of sending the wool and cotton three thousand miles to the mill, and thus abolish, forever, the necessity of depending upon this great broker, who fails so frequently. "Nothing," to use the words of the South Carolina Committee, on the scheme for reducing the quantity of cotton, "can have more disastrous effects upon planters, than this fluctuation from low prices to high, and from high to low. All which is necessary," as they say in continuation, "to our prosperity, is a diminution in our wants, and a near approach to certainty in the market value of cotton."

Such is the want of the whole country. The manufacturer wants some certainty, and therefore does he ask for protection against the endless and enormous fluctuations of England. The iron-master wants some certainty, that he will not be ruined by those fluctuations. The farmer wants some certainty, that the furnace or the mill in his neighborhood shall not be closed by the fluctuations of English policy. The cotton planter wants certainty. None can have it while England shall continue the broker of the whole cotton and wool-growing world. Let the farmer and the planter unite, not on party, but on *American* ground, to bring the consumers, with their capital and machines to their sides, and protect them when there; and thus they will *protect themselves*, and all will have certainty.

By the following extracts, for which we are indebted to De Bow's Commercial Review, it will be seen that Georgia and Tennessee are both going ahead in the important matter of bringing the consumer to the side of the producer. What is to be the effect of the present revulsion in England on their infant manufactures, remains yet to be seen. The great factories at Lowell, admirably as they are managed, make no dividends. The great establishment at Fall River, the first in the Union for printing cloths, is ruined. Large establishments elsewhere have failed, and more are likely to fail, and we have our fears for those at the South. The natural consequences of this must be, that now, few factories will be built for some some time, and thus the planter has his market at home diminished at the very moment when, from the failure of his great broker abroad, and the consequent difficulty of selling his cotton, he has most reason to desire to see it increased, and so it must continue to be, until he shall determine to take for himself such effectual protection as will enable him to entice the little and inexpensive loom to come and take its place by the side of the great and costly machine of production.

Resources of Georgia, Manufactures, &c.—Mr. Nisbit, whose able article on Georgia in the Southern Review, elicited so much applause—has lately made a report as Chairman of the Committee on Manufactures, in that State, from which we extract:

Georgia presents the greatest possible advantage as a manufacturing State. She has a large amount of unemployed capital and labor. She boasts a climate favorable for every kind of enterprise and exertion. And then she occupies a geographical position which gives her ready access to the markets of the world, with her manufactured products.

But a few years have elapsed since the introduction of manufacturing into Georgia. Those few years have witnessed the initiative policy, its rapid advance, and its triumphant success. We have in successful operation several iron establishments, with large capitals, and giving employment to some hundreds of operatives. These establishments are furnishing iron ware of various kinds, cheap in price, respectable in quantity, and unexcelled in quality. They are also pre-

paring to supply iron for machinery, agricultural implements, railroads, and all the uses of life. In the department of cotton manufacturing, your Committee have collected a few statistics, which they do not present as accurate, but approximating thereto. We know of thirty-two cotton factories in our State, in operation, or in progress of construction. There are employed in the buildings and workings of these thirty-two factories, two millions of dollars. The number of hands engaged therein is near three thousand, and of persons directly receiving their support from the same, six thousand. The consumption of provisions and agricultural products, (other than cotton,) by these factories, is fully equal to three hundred thousand dollars per annum, at present prices. Their consumption of cotton per annum, reaches 18,000 to 20,000 bags, and the value of manufactured goods turned out by them last year, fell nothing short of one and a half millions of dollars. One-third of these manufactured goods were sold out of the State, mostly in the Northern markets, and partially in the Valley of the Mississippi—that illimitable field of consumption which lies open to the enterprise of our manufacturers.

Manufactures in Georgia and Tennessee.—Georgia and Tennessee are destined to become the great manufacturing States of the South, if not of the Union, because they have not only greater resources in proportion to their population, but, being traversed in every direction by railroads and rivers, and having a double outlet both to the Gulf and the Atlantic, they will possess unparalleled advantages in regard to both the foreign and domestic markets. If our people would display one-half the energy and enterprise of the Yankees, in a quarter of a century from the present time, we could surpass the whole of New England in wealth and population Indeed, all that we now lack to develop that enterprise and energy, is the establishment of manufactories, and the more general introduction of machinery.

Let us compare for a moment the agricultural wealth of the two States named, with that of New England. Georgia and Tennessee have, together, a population of 1,694,000; the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, and Rhode Island have 2,422,000 souls. Now let us see the relative products of the two sections as developed by the census of 1840, and by more recent statistics:

	New England.	*Georgia and Tennessee.*
Corn,	11,943,000 bushels.	83,584,000 bushels.
Wheat,	2,898,000 "	9,911,000 "
Potatoes,	20,581,000 "	3,792,000 "
Rye,	2,582,000 "	448,000 "
Oats,	11,247,000 "	9,458,000 "
Buckwheat,	1,097,000 "	
Total,	50,348,000	107,194,000

From the same journal we take the following comparative view of South Carolina and Rhode Island:

Manufactures for the South—Rhode Island and South Carolina.—One great cause of the unproductiveness of our capital and labor, is the want of diversion of them. In every country there is a kind of labor which experience proves to be the best and most productive of that country. In one, Agriculture should predominate; in another, Manufactures; in a third, Commerce; but in no one on the face of the globe has an exclusive attention to either of these branches been found the most profitable. It is the judicious combination of them all that makes a nation great, and prosperous, and happy. This is an old political doctrine; its antiquity, however, is no disparagement to its truth. For its illustration, we shall go no farther than the history of our own country. And fortunately for our purpose, the last census of the government furnishes data upon which there can be no dispute.

If we divide the population of Rhode Island (138,830) and that of South Carolina (549,398) into their respective annual incomes, viz: into $13,001,223 for Rhode Island, and into $27,173,536 for South Carolina, it will be perceived that Rhode Island divides, as the yearly income of each of its inhabitants, $100, while South Carolina divides only $45. If you take out the black population in both States, and make the division only among the whites, Rhode Island will divide $119, while South Carolina will divide $101. These are startling facts. Why are they so? It will, perhaps, be said it is either because the people of Rhode Island are more industrious than our people, or are engaged in more profitable labor; or from both causes combined.

The first of these we are unwilling to grant. Naturally, we believe, there are no people more willing to work than ours, when only taught to see a profitable result to their labor. The difference in the profits of the two States must be attributed, therefore, to some other cause. The labor of Rhode Island is diversified, ours is not. Let us see: there are engaged in

Rhode Island.		*South Carolina.*	
Agriculture	1 in 6	Agriculture	1 in 3
Commerce	1 in 87	Commerce	1 in 301
Manufactures	1 in 5	Manufactures	1 in 57

Divide the population of the two States into families of five each; there will be 27,766 families in Rhode Island, and 118,879 in South Carolina. Give to each family, and to the horses, cattle, hogs and sheep attached to each, the amount of grain, potatoes and hay usually consumed by them, and it will appear that South Carolina will be deficient in a self-supply as much as a million and a half bushels, while Rhode Island will have a surplus of very nearly that amount. This arises from the fact that South Carolina has more horses and cattle to support than Rhode Island. Thus, they are in

Rhode Island.		*South Carolina.*	
1-2 a horse to a family of	5	1 1-2 horse to a family of	5
1 cow to a family of	5	1 neat cattle to a "	5
4 sheep to a family of	5	1 sheep to a family of	5
1 hog to a family of	5	7 1-2 hogs to a family of	5
6½ of all kinds.		14 of all kinds.	

Suppose them to be equal, and that both States have enough of wheat, rye, oats, barley, potatoes and hay to support their population and cattle, and the comparative incomes of the two States would stand thus:

	Rhode Island.	*South Carolina.*
Manufactures,	$8,640,526	$2,248,915
Commerce,	1,294,957	2,632,421
Mines,	162,410	187,608
Forests,	44,610	549,626
Fisheries,	659,312	1,275
Rice,		1,514,772
Cotton,		4,628,270
Total,	$10,801,914	$11,762,986

From this estimate, each inhabitant in Rhode Island, after feeding himself, will have over $99 for clothing and other expenses, while each one in South Carolina will have a fraction under $20.

The above table also shows another fact of much importance. The manufactures of Rhode Island are more valuable than the cotton and rice of Carolina taken together. In other words, the labor employed in the one is more productive than in the other two.

It is a question, then, which comes directly home to us, "Is South Carolina less capable than Rhode Island of excelling in the same profitable labors?"

We have already combated that class of complainers who are eternally decrying the profits of agricultural labor; there is another class who elevate it too much, even to the exclusion of all other pursuits. Nothing is easier than to be so deceived. Such persons view the agricultural calling with a poetical eye and see in it nothing but pastoral beauty and happiness. Were this the occasion, no task would be more pleasant than to indulge in drawing a picture of the virtue, and excellence, and riches of a people thus engaged. As a rhetorical exercise, it might afford entertainment; but the true economist, criticising the work, would pronounce it only a fancy picture, alike untrue to nature and to fact.

Besides this, the introduction of different manufactures among us, would have an effect not less important to our agriculture—we mean the great inland trade it would create. In every prosperous country the inland or indirect trade is far greater than its foreign or direct trade. In England or New York, for instance, it is fifteen times greater. Consider, then, a new trade created for Carolina ten

times greater than at present; consider for a moment the influence upon agriculture—how much more certainty it would afford the merchant in the investment of his capital than in foreign risks; what a numerous class of workmen it would employ; the misery it would remove by giving business to the idle, and the content and happiness it would afford the complaining. Is not such a consummation devoutly to be wished for?—*South Carolinian.*

Such a consummation *is* most devoutly to be wished, but how is it to be obtained?

Of all the cotton-growing States, South Carolina is the one whose planters most need protection, because they are nearest to the great cause of disturbance. The manufacturer of Tennessee is protected by distance. He buys his cotton cheaper, and he can sell his cloth dearer, because of the difference of freight, and therefore it is possible that he may be enabled to go on, notwithstanding the occurrence of these unceasing and enormous revulsions. The manufacturer of South Carolina is not so protected, and the danger of ruin to those who may engage in converting the food and the cotton of that State into cloth, and thus diminishing the cost of the conversion, is immense. Of all the States of the South, that is the one that is best situated for manufacturing. She has more wealth at command than any other. Her citizens have always been large stockholders in *distant banks*, because at home the State was the great banker. By regulation she has thus driven abroad the wealth that should have been retained at home, and her citizens are now flying from poor lands that they have exhausted, leaving behind them the richest lands of the State untouched. Marl and limestone, the proper application of which would render her one of the richest States of the Union, abound throughout the State, yet men fly to Arkansas and Texas, abandoning their houses, their relatives, and their friends, because they cannot find near those homes a demand for the food that they could raise in such vast abundance on her rich and untouched soils.

South Carolina is the State that *of all others* most needs protection. It is the one that would, of all others, most profit by it. It is, nevertheless, the one of all others, whose planters are most determined not to take for themselves that protection which would make her the Rhode Island of the South, and enable her to maintain that position in the Union which she is now so rapidly losing, because of her increasing tendency to depopulation. The day cannot, we think, be far distant when she will open her eyes to the error of her policy.

Much as this article has been extended, the subject growing in interest as we contemplate it, we cannot close it without making the following brief extracts from Mr. Carey's remarkable and convincing work, "The Past, the Present, and the Future," to which we have elsewhere referred, and which every friend of agriculture and the *real independence* of his country ought carefully to read:

"What is the extent of indirect taxation upon the people of the United States by means of the system which keeps the producer and the consumer widely sep-

arated, may perhaps be estimated if we take into consideration the following facts:

"1st. The labor annually expended in the construction of carts, and wagons, and ships, that would be unnecessary if the consumer and producer could be permitted to take their place by the side of each other, would produce as many mills and furnaces as would convert into cloth half the cotton and wool produced, and smelt the ore for making all the iron used in the Union. To the carts, and wagons, and ships, may be added the labor of horses and oxen and mules employed in the same wasteful work.

"2d. The time lost by the persons employed in the work of unnecessary transportation and exchange; by those who are idle in whole or in part for want of a regular demand for labor; and by those who are on the road seeking for new places of residence, is more than would be required for the work of converting all the wool into cloth, and all the ore into iron.

"3d. The labor that is now given to the work of cultivating poor soils yielding ten bushels to the acre, instead of rich ones that are capable of affording tons of food by aid of which poor soils might be enriched, would yield double the return could the consumer take his place by the side of the producer and thus save the manure that is now wasted.

"4th. The labor that is now wasted in making and repairing roads through new States and Territories, and among scattered settlements in both old and new States, if applied to the improvement of old roads, would diminish annually, and largely, the cost of transportation of the products of those portions of the earth requiring to be exchanged.

"It may safely be asserted that the labor of man, as now applied, is, on an average, but half as productive as it would be were it possible for the consumer and the producer to be near neighbors to each other; and if so, it follows that the indirect taxation by aid of the colonial system is equal to the whole of the present product of the Union, which we have estimated at two thousand million of dollars. If we wish evidence of the extent to which taxation is pushed by aid of this system, we need only to look to all the colonies of England throughout the world. Ireland, India, the West Indies, Canada, Nova Scotia, and South Africa, and we shall find exhaustion and depopulation universal, as it must continue to be wherever the power of self-protection has no existence."—[*Farmer's Library.*

ART. IX.—SHIP BUILDING ON THE WESTERN WATERS.

THERE is no branch of industry which has been so completely overlooked in the west, as that of ship building; while there is none, perhaps, which promises a better reward to the mechanic, or more profit to the capitalist. We are pleased to find that our industrious and able correspondent, S., of Louisville, (Ky.) has brought this subject before the people of the west. It is a business of much

importance in the economy of the country, and highly worthy of the consideration and encouragement of all classes The advantages of ship building upon the western waters are fairly and clearly stated in the following communication, and are such as must be appreciated by our readers. We are under obligations to our correspondent S., for the interesting communication of Dr. S P. Hildreth, of Ohio, giving a history of ship building at Marietta. Many of our readers will doubtless be surprised to find, that the building of ocean craft was so extensively carried on at that place, in the early part of the present century.

We respectfully and earnestly solicit information upon the economy of ship building on the western waters, and trust that those of our readers who are acquainted with the subject will favor us with such facts as will enable us to place the merits of this business fairly before the country.

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To the Editors of the Western Journal:

The establishment and success of your Journal is one of the many indications presented, not only of the interest now felt in the west on the subject of home manufactures and a home market, but of our ability to obtain and sustain both.

What is now chiefly required, is information of a practical character, and clearly showing what we most need, and how this want can best be supplied—in what branches of manufactures we possess peculiar advantages, and *when* and *how* these can be most advantageously established.

In the articles of mine, now being published in your Journal, I have endeavored to prove that in the manufacture of cotton goods for the western demand, we have the advantage over all competitors of over 25 per cent. In my calculations I find that I have made some important errors, but fortunately for my argument, these errors are against me. The cost of building and operating a cotton mill is put too high, and the cost of transportation too low. For instance, the cost of spindles is stated at $12 each; they can now be had at the best machine shops at $10—the actual cost of making them is not over $7 75. This is the most important error that has been pointed out to me, and it lessens the estimate of capital required, for a mill of the size stated, $20,000

But my present object is to call the attention of your readers and correspondents to another very important branch of industry, in which, as I conceive, we have, if possible, greater advantages than in the manufacture of cotton. I refer to the building of ocean craft of every description. For these we have the raw material —timber, iron and hemp—at our very doors.

I am not particularly familiar with the construction of ships, and can only throw out suggestions and state general impressions, which I trust will educe all the facts connected with the subject, from those who possess them. I understand that the commercial marine of this country is built almost entirely north of the Chesapeake Bay, and the region of live oak, and of *fresh water timber*. On the tide water the timber has been exhausted for years, and that which is now used

is rafted or transported from the interior, and at great cost. I have known the timber on land fifteen miles from the sea, sell for $200 per acre, thence hauled three miles to a saw mill, and from that four miles to the ship yard, on tide water, and where a ship of four hundred tons could be floated to the sea only during the high spring tides. This was in New Hampshire. This timber in no respect was superior to that which we have, in quantities apparently inexhaustible, on the banks of our streams that are navigable at all seasons. I have no knowledge of the Mississippi above Cairo, but recently I passed through a forest of white oak immediately back of Mills' Point, which would furnish the timber for the navy of christendom. This oak district, as I understand, commences below Randolph and extends up as high as Columbus. Between these points ships of any burthen can be built and sent to sea at almost any period of the year. The banks of the Ohio, the Tennessee and the Cumberland, are skirted with the best kinds of ship timber, and these rivers, for hundreds of miles, are navigable a[t] seasons of the year when the produce of our country is ready for market.

The ship Minesota, recently built at Cincinnati by Captain Deshon, and under direction of one of the best eastern architects, recently passed us, on her way to Liverpool. She is pronounced by competent judges to be equal in every respect, to any merchant vessel now on or off the stocks on the eastern seaboard. The estimate of comparative cost of our upper Ohio built ships, and those built at the east, is a saving of about twenty per cent. in first cost, and from fifteen to twenty per cent. more in the freight to New Orleans. For instance, the Minesota, of say eight hundred tons, would take a downward freight of five thousand dollars. The cost of towage would be, say one thousand dollars, and this would be more than saved in cost of re-shipment at New Orleans.

We have these advantages—

The cheapest timber, iron, hemp and provisions; easy navigation; saving of cost of re-shipment, and heavy charges at New Orleans; absence of risk—of damage to perishable freight exposed to the sun in a hot climate; saving of time, interest and insurance.

Shippers of corn, flour, meat, and tobacco only, will fully appreciate the advantage of sending these staples to a distant market, and through an inter-tropical climate, in vessels clean, fresh and cool, and in the shortest possible time.

If I am correct in these general views, here is an opening for an immensely valuable business to our men of capital and enterprise, and of vast importance to our country. No small part of the timber in the English dock yards has been transported from Canada, Norway, and the Baltic, and from fresh water streams. The ships built therefrom, are provisioned with our meat and bread. Let us build the ships here—load them with our products, and sell ship and cargo abroad. We shall find the demand unlimited, and we shall, to the extent we go into the business, take labor from less profitable employments, and create an additional home market for our agriculturalists.

My object will have been gained if the foregoing hasty and crude suggestions nduce some competent persons to take up the subject, and give us the practical information desired.

The commencement of ship building on the Ohio, was at Marietta; to obtain the history of its progress there, information was solicited from Dr. Hildreth, who has favored me with the following letter, which will doubtless interest you.

Louisville, May, 1848. Yours, S.

[Copy.]

MARIETTA, (OHIO,) MAY 12, 1848.

HAM. SMITH, Esq., *Louisville, Ky.*,

DEAR SIR—Your favor of 10th ultimo, has been received. The object is a very laudable one and should be advocated and encouraged by all good citizens of the Valley of the Ohio. Ship building in a region where oak timber is so abundant and cheap, one would suppose might be conducted with profit, compared with that business on the Atlantic coast east of the mountains. The early settlers of Marietta, seeing no good market for their surplus produce, the transport being too expensive for the conveyances then in use, turned their attention to ship-building —thus furnishing the mode of sending their produce to a foreign market, and turning their useless forests to a good account, instead of burning up the lumber in log heaps. It was commenced as early as the year 1800, when the brig Arthur St. Clair of 110 tons was built, loaded with pork and flour and conducted to the ocean by Com. Abra. Whipple. The Spaniards then possessed the shores of the Mississippi, and threw many obstructions in the way of navigation. The experiment was successful and profitable to the owners. In 1801, the ship Muskingum of 230 tons and brig Eliza Green, 126 tons, were built and loaded with produce, making good voyages. In the year 1802, the brig Dominic, 100 tons, built or owned by H. Beauverleapett and D. Woodbridge; schooner Indiana 75 tons, brig Marietta 150 tons, and brig Mary Avery. In 1803, two schooners, Whitney, of 75 tons each; brig Orlando 150 tons. In 1804, ship Temperance, 230 tons, and schooner Nonpareil of 70 tons, and brig Ohio 150 tons. In 1805, brig Perseverance 160 tons. In 1806, ship Rufus King 300, John Atchison 320, Tuscarora 320, with brig Sophia Green 100 tons, and two gun boats of 75 tons each. In 1807, the ship Francis 300, Robert Hale 300, brig Rufus Putnam, brig Golata 140 tons. In 1808, schooner Belle, 100 tons. In 1809, the schooner Adventure, 60 tons. In 1812, schooner Maria, 75 tons. The embargo of Thomas Jefferson, in 1808, put a stop to ship-building in Marietta, as the sale of vessels was dull. The larger portion of the vessels were owned by Thos. Lord and B. I. Gilman, two enterprising merchants of Marietta. They were usually sold or built on contract for merchants in Philadelphia or New York, but often made their first voyage to the West Indies or Europe to dispose of the cargoes. Some of them took out cotton for the planters on the Mississippi, and as they had no steam cot-

ton presses in those days to condense the bags to a moderate bulk, the price of freight per pound to Liverpool, was enormous.

From 1812 to 1844 ship-building was not resumed in Marietta, but from 1823 to 1838 the building of steamboats was carried on regularly by James Whitney and others, numbering nearly forty vessels, some of a large class. In 1844, a company was formed for building ships, and up to 1848 constructed three ships and two schooners; and Mr. N. L. Wilson, of Marietta built one ship of 300 tons, loaded her with produce in 1846, and sent her to Ireland. On her return she was sold at a fair price in Philadelphia. Before the invention of steam boats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, several of the early built vessels were torn, or greatly damaged in their descent to the ocean—some on islands, sandbars, or rapids at Louisville. They can now be towed down safely, but the cost takes away a large share of the profit on building. Several vessels were built at Pittsburgh, and one or two at other places on the Ohio, before 1806. The commanders and sailors to man the vessels, as well as the riggers, came from the Atlantic cities. The cordage, cables, &c., were made at Marietta, and in 1806 supported three large rope-walks. The growth of hemp was greatly encouraged, and was one of the staple articles of agriculture in the rich bottoms of the Ohio, as late as 1810 and 1812. No finer locust or oak timber can be found in the United States than grows on the borders of the Ohio.

Very respectfully, yours, S. P. HILDRETH.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH ALL NATIONS.

THE following letter from the Hon. Zadock Pratt, to the editor of the Merchants' Magazine, will fully explain the object and value of the following tables. We have omitted the table of exports and imports for the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843:

PRATTSVILLE, *New York, April* 25, 1848.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ.—*Dear Sir*:—As your Magazine has become the accredited repository of statistical information on all topics of commercial value, I take the liberty of sending you an interesting statement, which was prepared for me at the Treasury Department of the United States, in continuation of my report on the Bureau of Statistics. It presents, as you will observe, a complete view of the value of our export and import trade with each foreign country for the last five years, clearly showing the comparative importance of our trade with each country, as well as its fluctuations. By the recapitulation, you will notice that for three years out of five, the balance of trade was in favor of the United States—that is, our exports exceeded our imports.

The information embraced in this statement will be found to possess great practical value to merchants, manufacturers, and indeed all classes of intelligent men who take an interest in the development of our varied commercial and industrial resources. No statesman can legislate understandingly without such information.

I take great satisfaction in contributing to the pages of a journal in which every thing of value that appears finds an enduring record, and thus becomes matter of present and future reference.

With my best wishes for the continued usefulness and prosperity of the Merchants' Magazine, I am yours truly, ZADOCK PRATT.

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, from the 30th June, 1843, to the 30th June, 1847.

IN THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1844.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Russia,	$555,414	$1,059,419		$504,005
Prussia,	218,574	12,609	$205,965	
Sweden and Norway,	230,101	421,834		191,733
Swedish W. Indies,	65,244	23,719	41,525	
Denmark,	112,834	6,063	106,771	
Danish West Indies,	870,322	624,447	245,875	
Holland,	2,698,944	1,310,081	1,388,863	
Dutch East Indies,	359,383	935,984		576,601
Dutch West Indies,	323,286	386,283		62,997
Dutch Guiana,	71,772	49,144	22,628	
Belgium,	2,003,801	634,777	1,369,024	
Hanse Towns,	3,566,687	2,136,386	1,430,301	
England,	46,940,156	41,476,081	5,464,075	
Scotland,	1,953,473	527,239	1,426,234	
Ireland,	42,591	88,084		45,493
Gibraltar,	579,883	44,274	535,609	
Malta,	16,998	15	16,983	
British East Indies,	675,966	882,792		206,826
Australia,	29,667	122	29,545	
Cape of Good Hope,	82,938	29,166	53,772	
British West Indies,	4,136,046	687,906	3,448,140	
British Honduras,	239,019	248,343		9,324
British Guiana,	309,236	9,385	299,851	
Brit. Am. Colonies,	6,715,903	1,465,715	5,250,188	
France on Atlantic,	14,148,503	15,946,166		1,797,663
Do. Mediterranean,	1,289,897	1,603,318		313,421
French W. Indies,	617,546	374,695	242,851	
French Guiana,	57,039	28,233	28,806	
Miquelon and French Fisheries,	3,484		3,484	
Fr. African Ports and Bourbon,	16,967		16,967	
Hayti,	1,128,356	1,441,244		312,888

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Spain on Atlantic,	593,439	252,127	341,312	
Do. Mediterranean,	39,106	381,237		342,131
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	15,535	61,653		46,118
Manilla and Philippine Islands,	222,997	724,811		501,814
Cuba,	5,238,595	9,930,421		4,691,826
Other Sp. W. Indies,	642,139	2,425,202		1,783,063
Portugal,	103,118	199,705		96,587
Madeira,	52,286	22,904	29,382	
Fayal & other Azores,	26,229	29,570		3,341
Cape de Verd Islands,	70,537	4,836	65,701	
Italy,	576,823	1,096,926		520,103
Sicily,	354,316	462,773		108,457
Sardinia,	92,522		92,522	
Trieste,	1,426,020	232,089	1,193,931	
Turkey,	283,384	385,866		102,482
Morocco,		5,876		5,876
Texas,	277,548	678,551		401,003
Mexico,	1,794,833	2,387,002		592,169
Central America,	150,276	223,408		73,132
Venezuela,	531,232	1,435,479		904,247
New Granada,	124,846	189,616		64,770
Brazil,	2,818,252	6,883,806		4,065,554
Argentine Republic,	504,289	1,421,192		916,903
Cisplatine Republic,	462,176	144,763	317,413	
Chili,	1,105,221	750,370	354,851	
Peru,	16,807	184,424		167,617
S. America generally,	125,938		125,938	
China,	1,756,941	4,931,255		3,174,314
Europe generally,	28,700		28,700	
Asia generally,	462,662	34,908	427,754	
Africa generally,	710,244	459,237	251,007	
W. Indies generally,	181,448		181,448	
South Seas,	349,379	41,504	307,875	
N. W. coast of Amer.	2,178		2,178	
Total,	$111,200,046	108,435,035	25,347,469	22,582,458

IN THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1845.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Russia,	$727,337	$1,492,262		$764,925
Prussia,	567,121	31,082	$536,039	
Sweden and Norway,	273,328	627,938		354,610
Swedish West Indies,	90,339	12,119	78,220	
Denmark,	145,167	22,429	122,738	
Danish West Indies,	994,429	760,809	233,620	
Holland,	3,022,047	954,344	2,067,703	
Dutch East Indies,	201,158	538,608		337,450
Dutch West Indies,	337,788	363,324		25,536

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Dutch Guiana,	49,609	41,347	8,262	
Belgium,	1,851,073	709,562	1,141,511	
Hanse Towns,	4,945,020	2,912,537	2,032,483	
England,	46,286,178	44,687,859	1,598,319	
Scotland,	2,666,810	708,187	1,958,623	
Ireland,	103,471	104,857		1,386
Gibraltar,	589,671	92,118	497,553	
Malta.	12,909	22,311		9,402
British East Indies,	431,398	1,276,534		845,136
Australia,	70,311		70,311	
Cape of Good Hope,	33,743	26,439	7,304	
Mauritius,	12,935		12,935	
British West Indies,	4,124,220	752,580	3,371,640	
British Honduras,	239,915	204,818	35,097	
British Guiana,	418,748	7,957	410,791	
Brit. Am. Colonies,	6,054,226	2,020,065	4,034,161	
France on Atlantic,	14,322,685	20,181,250		5,858,565
Do. Mediterranean,	1,177,719	1,414,175		236,456
French W. Indies,	564,103	415,032	149,071	
French Guiana,	57,496	59,306		1,810
Miquelon and French Fisheries,		151		151
Fr. African Ports and Bourbon,	21,991		21,991	
Hayti,	1,405,740	1,386,367	19,373	
Spain on Atlantic,	271,783	117,158	154,625	
Do. Mediterranean,	84,508	954,628		870,120
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	5,895	55,032		49,137
Manilla and Philippine Islands,	154,578	633,059		478,481
Cuba,	6,564,754	6,804,414		239,660
Other Sp. W. Indies,	708,924	2,026,253		1,317,329
Portugal,	129,769	296,908		167,139
Madeira,	61,096	168,674		107,578
Fayal & other Azores,	2,882	28,573		25,691
Cape de Verd Islands,	53,433	7,579	45,854	
Italy,	817,921	1,301,577		483,656
Sicily,	405,292	529,493		124,201
Sardinia,	195,797	19,859	175,938	
Trieste,	1,801,878	321,550	1,480,328	
Turkey,	165,099	781,517		616,418
Texas,	363,792	755,324		391,532
Mexico,	1,152,331	1,702,936		550,605
Central America,	67,649	65,269	2,380	
Venezuela,	725,130	1,268,275		543,145
New Granada,	78,977	171,921		92,944
Brazil,	2,837,950	6,084,599		3,246,649
Argentine Republic,	503,006	1,750,698		1,247,692
Cisplatine Republic,	157,136	20,573	136,563	

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Chili,	1,548,191	1,123,690	424,501	
Peru,	33,424	336,112		302,688
S. America generally,	85,239		85,239	
China,	2,275,995	7,285,914		5,009,919
Europe generally,	21,573		21,573	
Asia generally,	312,748	106,110	206,638	
Africa generally,	605,106	572,126	32,980	
W. Indies generally,	182,976		182,976	
South Seas,	473,089	136,565	336,524	
N. W. coast of Amer.		245		245
Sandwich Islands,		1,566		1,566
Total,	$114,646,606	117,254,564	21,693,864	24,301,822

IN THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1846.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Russia,	$632,467	$1,570,054		$937,587
Prussia,	435,855	31,584	$404,271	
Sweden and Norway,	402,337	724,865		322,528
Swedish West Indies,	141,569	5,285	136,284	
Denmark,	121,242	1,313	119,929	
Danish West Indies,	1,125,916	752,614	373,302	
Holland,	2,296,765	1,059,597	1,237,168	
Dutch East Indies,	83,542	480,353		396,811
Dutch West Indies,	279,154	398,056		118,902
Dutch Guiana,	67,984	33,674	34,310	
Belgium,	2,381,814	836,372	1,545,442	
Hanse Towns,	4,608,620	3,149,864	1,458,756	
England,	44,540,108	43,844,160	695,948	
Scotland,	1,688,746	1,230,086	458,660	
Ireland,	1,082,471	85,774	996,697	
Gibraltar,	592,892	27,806	565,086	
British East Indies,	370,372	1,361,345		990,973
Australia,	48,783		48,783	
Cape of Good Hope,	23,713	81,686		57,973
Mauritius,	26,256	22,023	4,333	
British West Indies,	4,947,557	833,678	4,113,879	
British Honduras,	390,032	207,997	182,035	
British Guiana,	553,302	12,561	540,741	
British Amer. Colonies,	7,406,433	1,937,717	5,468,716	
Malta,	34,681	21,589	13,092	
France on the Atlantic,	14,040,449	22,608,589		8,568,140
Do. Mediterranean,	1,090,126	1,302,743		212,617
French West Indies,	635,621	348,236	287,385	
French Guiana,	41,401	71,296		29,895
Miquelon & Fr. Fisheries,		18		18
French African Ports and Bourbon,	5,995 / 12,259		18,254	
Hayti,	1,157,142	1,542,962		385,820
Spain on the Atlantic,	345,442	147,363	198,079	
Do. Mediterranean,	130,153	864,416		734,263
Teneriffe & other Canaries,	17,912	62,095		44,183
Manilla & Philippine Isles,	110,239	865,866		755,627
Cuba,	5,487,136	8,159,632		2,672,496
Other Spanish W. Indies,	701,346	2,277,110		1,575,764

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Portugal,	104,769	378,250		273,481
Madeira,	64,200	127,070		62,870
Fayal and other Azores,	4,225	41,297		37,072
Cape de Verd Islands,	31,782	857	30,925	
Italy,	1,366,915	1,189,786	177,129	
Sicily,	617,832	513,235	104,597	
Sardinia,	284,259		284,259	
Trieste,	1,470,611	379,719	1,090,892	
Turkey,	200,103	760,998		560,895
Morocco,		4,554		4,554
Texas,	473,603	183,058	290,545	
Mexico,	1,531,180	1,836,621		305,441
Central America,	120,253	116,733	3,520	
Venezuela,	781,547	1,509,000		727,453
New Granada,	75,944	67,043	8,901	
Brazil,	3,143,395	7,441,803		4,298,408
Argentine Republic,	185,425	799,213		613,788
Cisplatine Republic,	225,904	26,472	199,432	
Chili,	1,768,570	1,275,960	493,610	
Peru,		252,599		252,599
South America generally,	103,772		103,772	
China,	1,332,741	6,593,881		5,262,140
Asia generally,	428,519	361,988	66,531	
Africa generally	632,351	475,040	157,311	
West Indies generally,	127,651	12	127,639	
Atlantic Ocean,		166		166
Pacific Ocean,	354,903	153,029	201,874	
Sandwich Islands ,		243,034		243,034
Republic of Esquador,	1,130		1,130	
Total,	$113,488,516	121,691,797	22,242,217	30,445,498

IN THE YEAR ENDING 30th JUNE, 1846.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
Russia,	$750,450	$924,673		$174,223
Prussia,	202,166	7,608	$194,558	
Sweden and Norway,	420.187	613,698		193,511
Swedish West Indies,	113,721		113,721	
Denmark,	203,395	475	203,420	
Danish West Indies,	989,303	846,748	142,555	
Holland,	2,015,334	1,247,209	768,125	
Dutch East Indies,	209,140	894,982		694,842
Dutch West Indies,	233,569	279,038		45,469
Dutch Guiana,	44,228	59,355		15,127
Belgium,	3,222,557	948,325	2,274,232	
Hanse Towns,	4,334,638	3,622,185	712,453	
Hanover,	6,469		6,469	
England,	71,058,698	65,170,374	5,888,324	
Scotland,	3,807,473	1,837,014	1,970,459	
Ireland,	12,429,186	590,240	11,838,946	
Gibraltar,	420,386	26,969	393,417	
Malta,	47,637		47,637	
British East Indies,	373,237	1,646,457		1,273,220
Australia,	33,289		33,289	
Cape of Good Hope,	106,172	36,041	70,131	
Mauritius,	37,538		37,506	
British West Indies,	3,993,392	947,932	3,045,460	
British Honduras,	301,917	197,232	104,685	
British Guiana,	623,719	19,125	604,594	
British American Colonies,	7,985,543	2,343,927	5,641,616	
France on the Atlantic,	17,869,431	23,899,076		6,029,645
France on the Mediterranean,	1,228,187	1,001,765	226,422	
French West Indies,	603,164	151,366	451,798	
French Guiana,	60,277	47,775	12,502	
Miquelon and French Fisheries,		435		435

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	In favor of U. S.	Against U. S.
French African Ports and Bourbon,	5,491 52,557		58,048	
Hayti,	1,298,713	1,391,520		92,807
Spain on the Atlantic,	780,863	274,708	506,155	
Spain on the Mediterranean,	1,229,403	1,016,551	212,852	
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	15,148	61,864		46,716
Manilla and Philippine Isles,	77,240	494,056		416,816
Cuba,	6,977,706	12,394,867		5,417,161
Porto Rico,	859,064	2,141,929		1,282,865
Portugal,	58,228	283,330		225,102
Madeira,	106,420	95,857	10,563	
Fayal and other Azores,	9,991	34,564		24,573
Cape de Verd Islands,	88,932	2,399	86,533	
Italy,	1,149,355	1,279,936		130,581
Sicily,	64,117	550,988		486,871
Sardinia,	647,102	287	646,815	
Trieste,	1,248,723	187,341	1,061,382	
Turkey,	127,242	577,710		450,468
Mexico,	692,428	746,818		54,390
Central America,	96,568	80,581	15,987	
Venezuela,	615,213	1,322,496		707,283
New Granada,	73,060	156,654		83,594
Brazil,	2,943,778	7,096,160		4,152,382
Argentine Republic,	176,089	241,209		65,120
Cisplatine Republic,	236,839	112,810	124,029	
Chili,	1,671,610	1,716,903		45,293
Peru,	227,537	396,223		168,686
South America generally,	50,640	10,500	40,140	
China,	1,832,884	5,583,343		3,750,459
Asia generally,	267,244	308,481		41,237
Africa generally,	744,930	559,842	185,088	
West Indies generally	119,676		119,676	
Pacific Ocean,	360,074	44,588	315,486	
Sandwich Islands,		21,039		21,039
Republic of Esquador,	27,824		27,824	
Total,	$158,648,622	146,545,638	38,192,899	26,089,915

THE TOTAL BALANCE OF TRADE FOR OR AGAINST THE UNITED STATES.

1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
$111,200,046	117,254,564	121,691,797	158,648,622
108,435,035	114,646,606	113,488,516	146,545,638
$2,765,011*	$2,607,958†	$8,203,281†	$12,103,984*

*In favor. †Against.

ST. LOUIS HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

THE second annual exhibition of this valuable institution opened on the 24th ultimo, and continued two days. The variety of specimens, though not extensive, were selected with taste and judgment, affording flattering anticipations of the future usefulness of the Society. Where so little attention has been bestowed on horticulture as in the vicinity of St. Louis, it will require many years of labor and enterprise, to enable the Society to compete with the exhibitions of older cities. But this should not lessen the interest of our citizens, for one would suppose that individuals of every class would feel a desire to witness the improvements that are made from year to year, and that this—supposing them destitute of all taste for that which is beautiful—would induce them to attend the annual exhibitions of the Society.

Horticultural Societies may be justly ranked among the benevolent institutions of the country. They are calculated to cheapen the price and improve the quality of both fruits and vegetables; and more than all, to improve the taste and refine the moral tone of society. These remarks may be considered as common-place, yet it would seem that they are not generally understood by our citizens, if we are allowed to judge from the indifference with which they regarded the late horticultural exhibition.

Those who labor for the public good make many sacrifices, while their rewards consist in the pleasing consciousness of having discharged th eir duties, and in the approbation of those for whom they toil; the former is certain, and more solid it is true—but they are justly entitled to the latter, and that community which neglects suitable occasions to countenance and encourage the public benefactor, in his benevolent undertakings, is chargeable with ingratitude.

A company of vagabond circus riders shall erect a pavilion in ou r city, and it is crowded to suffocation; and, perhaps, the street is thronged with those who cannot gain admittance—while, although occurring but once a year, a horticultural exhibition, of much that is rare and beautiful, possesses little attraction when brought in competition with the stale jests of the clown and the ring-master.

We trust, however, that these considerations will not discourage our worthy horticulturalists. They are engaged in a good work, and if they persevere they *must succeed* in producing a revolution in the general taste of the community, as well as in promoting the comfort of all classes.

MINERAL DISCOVERIES IN MISSOURI.

Editors of the Western Journal:

Following the plan of previous communications, I desire in this to call your attention to the description of minerals in this part of the country, so far as they have come under my observation.

The discovery of mines are often accidental. One of this kind was made the other day by myself and Mr. Calvin Keith, of St. Louis. We were making one of those excursions commonly called in this country "*Prospecting*," when our attention was suddenly arrested by something for which we were not looking, nor should have dreamed of looking for in such a location. Our discovery proved to be pure Galena, or sulphuret of lead; ts location is near Caledonia, among the primitive rock, known as *Porphyry Granite*, associated with the rock, and accompanied with the sulphate of Barytes.

I am a practical miner, or at least have had considerable experience in mining, and consider the *location* of this mine very remarkable; never meeting it in my own mining operations, nor having heard of it being found in such locations in

this mining region by others. The lead is of the purest quality, and I think will yield eighty-five per cent. As the discovery is new, the extent of the mine is a matter of conjecture. I would remark, however, that according to Dr. Ure, Galena as it occurs in the primitive formations in Europe, contains more silver than that of calcareous formations.

I have also recently discovered Cobalt near Caledonia, accompanied with Manganese Ore, along with the yellow sandstone rock. The quantity of this ore is yet unknown. The quality is apparently very pure. It is well adapted to the manufacture of zaffre, smalts, &c.

In a late tour through the country I have discovered Manganese Ore and Black Wad in quantities. These are pronounced to be of good quality. They are found in the western edge of Cape Girardeau county. I have also discovered Manganese Ore in the southern part of St. Genevieve county, which is very extensive and of the purest quality. It is located about twenty-one miles from the Mississippi river.

There has been some tin discovered near Caledonia, accompanied with quartzose felspar, but not in any workable quantity. Many other minerals have been discovered in this neighborhood, but it is not known yet what they really are. I will speak of them at some future day.

Caledonia, May 12, 1848. F. WOOLFORD.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

LINES TO MISS GEORGIA W——.

BY HENRY F. WATSON.

I PRAY thee, fair lady, no longer accuse
The friends who admire thee of flatt'ry profuse;
If they look, they must feel; if they feel, they must speak,
Though unbidden it bring the deep blush to thy cheek.

In the far-distant realms of the East, we are told,
There are beings who worship the sun more than gold;
But fore'er would they turn from the light of those skies,
Could they catch but a ray of the light of thine eyes.

Then while the poor heathen is dazzled and won,
And looks with delight at the rays of the sun,
Deny not to us the one blessing we prize
Of bowing beneath the sweet light of thine eyes.

Other lights are around us, above and below,
And we heed not their rays; but the soft, witching glow
That lurks on thy cheek, and distils from thine eyes,
Is sweeter by far than the lights of the skies.

Then a toast to the light of the eyes that outshine
The bright orbs of the Heav'ns, and the gems of the mine,
And a health to her, who, though caress'd and belov'd,
Is with gentleness, kindness, and modesty cloth'd.

LINES TO MISS ——

BY T. F. RISK.

Thou art a pure and noble creature,
With eyes of fire and lips of dew,
In whose fair form confiding Nature
Has thrown her brightest gems to view.

Thy voice is like sweet music floating
In air, at midnight's lonely hour,
When twinkling stars in Heaven are gleaming.
And sighing zephyrs kiss the flower.

Now 'tis heard in deep pathos gliding
Like music from the spheres above,
Now gentle, gay, fond and confiding,
In accents musical with love.

Thy smile is like the blush of morn,
When sunbeams sip the dews of night;
Thy laugh more sweet than hunter's horn
As first it greets the morning light.

When thus I see thee in thy brightness,
And smiling forms around thee glide,
Thou seem'st to be an Angel's likeness
Lingering o'er life's restless tide.

Farewell! I give this parting sigh
In memory of other scenes,
When the pulse of Hope beat warm and high,
And Life was seen through brighter dreams.

A SCRAP FROM THE EDITORS' TABLE.

Our life is two-fold.—Byron.

Our existence is three-fold: the impressions of the present are assimilated with our mental and moral natures; while memory and hope conjoining, extend the province of man to little less than infinite.

In our rapid and resistless speed on the wing of time do we bear along with us these captive impressions; or does the mind leave the subjects of its conquest in the occupation of their respective places, and expanding as it proceeds, add each new acquisition to its former dominion? Be this as it may, the impressions of the present are incorporated with those of the past; and are not the less permanent because the objects that made them may have perished from the earth. And thus this mental dominion of man is peopled with the images of forms which have ceased to exist in the material world. Nay more, the thoughts and affections which pertained to the beings of the past are also impressed upon our mental and moral natures; and thus rescued from oblivion, survive the corporeal existence of those from whom they emanated.

But still these images of the material world—as also those of thought and affection—adhere to time and place, and retain all their former relations to the past. Has the form of one whose love constituted our highest delight faded from our vision, and its substance returned thither whence it came; and do we desire to refresh our hearts at the pure fountain from which in times past we drank deep draughts of pleasure—we return to the time, the place, and the circumstances which called forth some unwonted demonstration of affection; and then, although long since dried up, the living fountain is again opened; and as the gentle showers of heaven descending on the withered plant, causeth it to rejoice—so do the consecrated impressions made by beings which have ceased to exist, revive our sympathies; and wrapped in the pleasures of the past, we escape for a season from the evils of the present.

Then, truly, the past is ours: and we are permitted even in our present state of existence to draw both pleasure and instruction from beings whose material forms have been dissolved into their original elements.

The future, also, that illimitable space where dwell our hopes—that Eden of desire—that better land, abounding in every good that fancy can devise, is ours. Had we not free ingress into this boundless region, whither could we escape from present ills? Or who would toil, did Hope promise no reward beyond the present hour? Did not the anticipations of the future mingle with our present enjoyments, they would no longer afford delight—and hope failing, life itself would cease.